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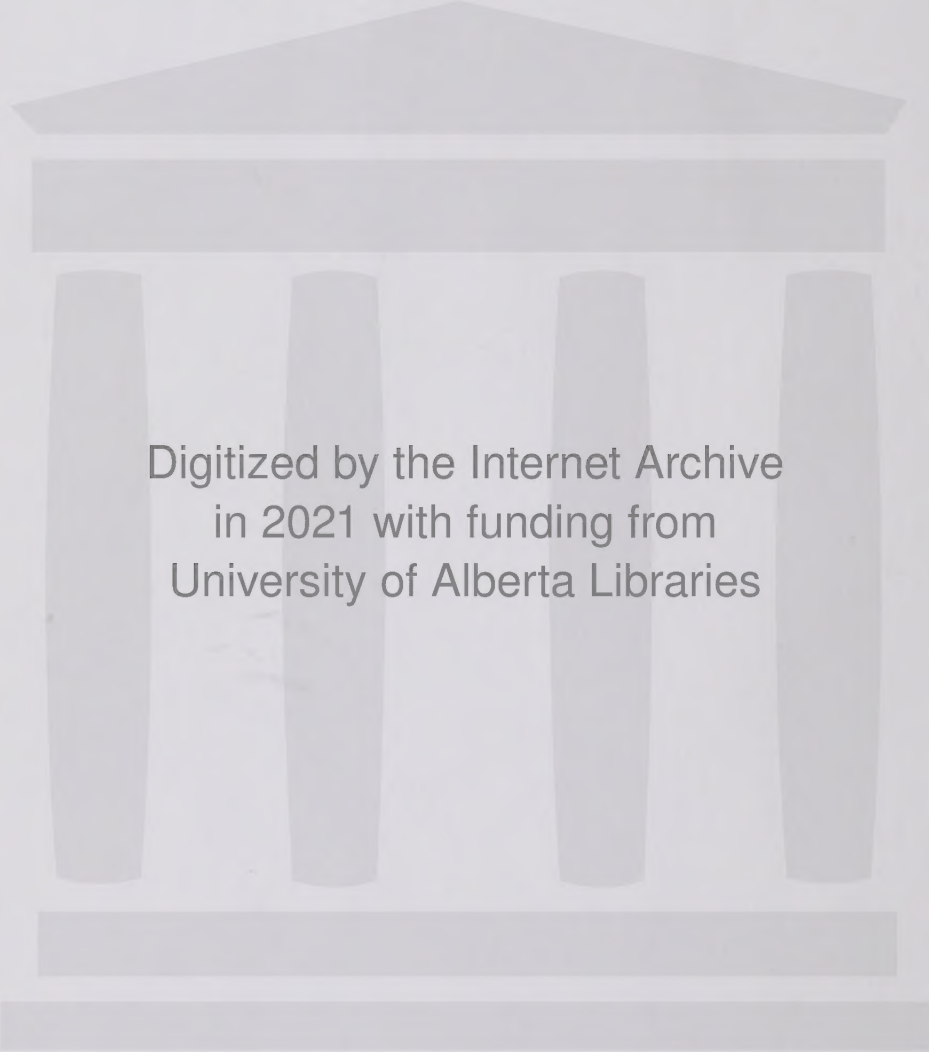
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CANADA AND THE COMMONWEALTH

SPOTLIGHT ON CANADA SERIES

CANADA AND THE COMMONWEALTH

CANADA AND THE AMERICAS

CANADA AND THE WORLD

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SPOTLIGHT ON CANADA SERIES

CANADA and THE COMMONWEALTH

Approved for use in the Schools of Ontario

TORONTO — VANCOUVER

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Johnny Beaver



Johnny Beaver is the only person who appears in every chapter of this book, and by the time the authors were finished they were very fond of him. They are sure the readers will soon feel the same way.

Johnny, as you will expect, is a real Canadian, and he knows Canada and Canada's story very well since he has travelled around a good deal in both. As a traveller he has some surprising advantages, since he seems to be able to go from place to place, or even from century to century, without the slightest difficulty.

This is naturally a lot of fun, but you will find that he does not rush around aimlessly. He is really the spirit of Canada, and the reason he travels is that he wants to find out about things that are of interest to Canadians. It is remarkable how much he sees. In Unit Three, for example, he watches King John sign Magna Carta in 1215, and certainly that was an important event for Canadians as well as for a lot of other people. And then in Unit Ten, seven hundred years later, you can see him in the trenches in the First World War, and at its end at the Peace Conference in Paris in 1919.

Actually only a few of his adventures could be included in this book, but readers without doubt will think of many others, and will perhaps draw some Johnny Beaver portraits themselves.

One thing the authors like about him is the cheerfulness and zest with which he enters into everything. And they are especially fond of his wardrobe. He seems to be prepared for all occasions, no matter where or when.

AUTHORS' PREFACE

To cover so wide a range in time and space as this book attempts is a challenge of which the authors have been very conscious. Two thousand years of history from Roman Britain to our own day, and a survey of lands and peoples in far scattered parts of the world are not easily combined. Yet the whole has a theme and meaning which we cannot afford to miss, as the existence and world-wide significance of the Commonwealth prove. The association of free peoples of many races, religions, and manners of life, in a partnership based not on force but on a desire to find ways of co-operation, is a phenomenon which the twentieth-century world will do well to try to understand.

In choosing the topics for treatment the authors have tried at all points to keep in mind the central theme of the Commonwealth in our own day, and the processes by which it has been created. On the side of history, stress has been given to such topics as the development of parliamentary and democratic government, great economic changes such as the industrial revolution, expansion overseas, and the contribution of British culture to our modern world. In the field of geography not only is there factual material, but the effects of environment and the responses men have made to geographic influences have been demonstrated at many points. Geography and history have, it is hoped, been related in a genuine 'social studies' approach to the subject. In line with the title, the interest of the material for Canada has been constantly kept in mind, and many references have been made to it.

No book can be a substitute for good teaching, but it should be an aid, and in this connection certain principles have been followed throughout. While each of the units, for example, has

been made complete, they are interrelated and the desirability of integration in the book as a whole has been kept in view. Moreover, the topics have been brought within a chronological framework sufficiently to hold them together, and in this way the advantages of both the topical and chronological treatments have been preserved. Another teaching principle given attention is that of repetition. Mere reiteration is undesirable and has been avoided, but in a number of cases important events or developments have been treated in more than one unit, that is in more than one context, and this type of repetition is an aid to learning and understanding.

Similarly the illustrations, though they provide decoration and will interest or even amuse, have been thought of primarily in terms of their teaching value. In particular the pictograms and time charts sum up main points in sections of the text, and aid in the quick understanding of basic factual material. The maps are a similar aid to quick understanding, and are not intended to take the place of an atlas or more detailed maps which are essential. The book is meant to encourage an interest in additional supplementary material of all sorts. Of special importance in this connection are the questions and suggestions at the ends of chapters. They have been framed with the aim of encouraging wider reading, and suggesting activities which are within the practical range of teachers in the classroom.

Canada has gained much in her relations with many lands, and in particular with Britain, France, and the United States. In other volumes of this series the relations with France and the United States will find a place. In this volume the theme has been Canada's relations to Britain, and to the British heritage which has broadened out in many places and through many centuries into the creation of the Commonwealth of our own day.

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FLAGS OF THE COMMONWEALTH



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BLUE ENSIGN-NAVAL RESERVE



RED ENSIGN-MERCHANT



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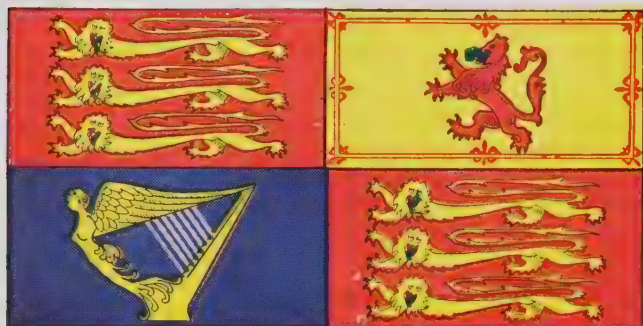
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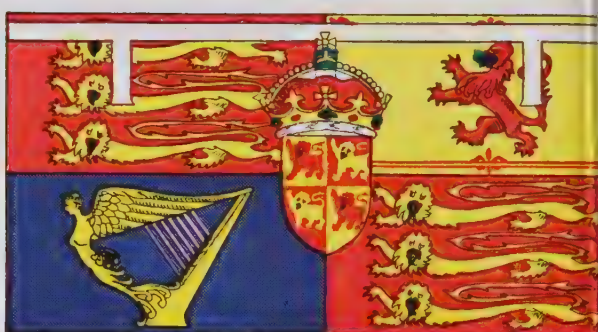
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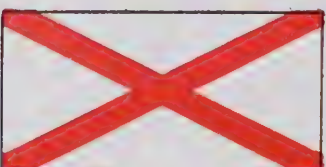
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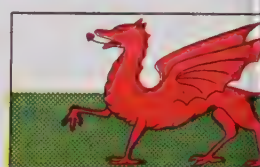
ST. GEORGE'S CROSS
ENGLAND



ST. ANDREW'S CROSS
SCOTLAND



ST. PATRICK'S CROSS
IRELAND



WELSH DRAGON



CANADIAN RED ENSIGN



GOVERNOR GENERAL OF CANADA



ROYAL CANADIAN AIR FORCE



AUSTRALIAN BLUE ENSIGN



UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA



INDIA



CEYLON



NEW ZEALAND BLUE ENSIGN



SOUTH AFRICAN NAVAL



PAKISTAN



SOUTHERN RHODESIA

UNIT ONE

SPOTLIGHT ON THE COMMONWEALTH

1. *A Flight Around the World*
2. *The World-Wide Family of Nations*
3. *The Links of the Commonwealth*
4. *The Lands and the Peoples of the Commonwealth*
5. *The Miracle of the Commonwealth*

1. A Flight Around the World

Suppose you had the chance to make an aeroplane flight around the world. Where would you go? What sort of countries would you see? We can imagine the kind of trip you might make. Look—it is almost flight time, and your giant silver air liner is about to take off. Now, engines roaring, it lifts away from the ground and heads eastwards across Canada, bearing you, an excited passenger, on the first stage of your long journey around the globe.

The first stop is at Gander airport in Newfoundland. At this busy cross-roads of the world's airways your plane



is refuelled for the ocean flight. Then it soars out over the grey Atlantic, leaving Canada far behind. Hour after hour there is nothing to see but empty ocean, vast and lonely. Just as it seems endless, the islands of Great Britain rise into view. Soon you are flying over gently rounded hills and the greenest of green fields, over smoking factories and crowded towns. And now the countless roofs of the world's largest city spread out below. You have reached London, the proud and storied capital of Britain.

Here there is time for a little sight-seeing: the world-famous Houses of Parliament, the grim old Tower of London, and Buckingham Palace, home of Britain's—and Canada's—Queen, where tall red-coated sentries stand stiffly on guard. But it is

raining and damp in London, and you are ready for the next leg of your flight, which will take you south, away from the sea mists of the British Isles to lands of sun and heat in the great continent of Africa.

Southwards you fly, on and on to reach the equator, and still on southwards, over the steaming African jungles. Now the jungle begins to give way to rolling brown plains, and mountain peaks shine in the southern distance. This is the 'high veldt' country, the dry grasslands. You have arrived in the Union of South Africa. Soon you see the elevator towers and mine shafts of the Rand, one of the world's greatest gold-producing areas, with the skyscrapers of Johannesburg rising nearby. But you go on to land at Durban, a beautiful semi-tropical port beside the Indian Ocean. In this bustling modern city you still see the Zulu native 'boys' pulling rickshaws and dressed in savage finery; you see streets thronged with people, white, brown and black, speaking English, Afrikaans (a kind of Dutch), Hindu, Zulu, and a host of African tongues—a strange and fascinating scene.

Again you must be on your way, and this time it lies across the sparkling Indian Ocean, north-eastwards to India. Another long droning ocean flight, then the island of Ceylon passes under



the wings and the mainland of India appears. Now there are more hot sun-baked plains, more jungle forest, with clearings dotted about. Here the Indian villagers are tending their crops by hand with primitive wooden tools, helped only by the heavy water buffalo, which in this country often takes the place of the farm horse or even of the tractor. But now through the haze of an Indian afternoon white domes and towers are shimmering in the heat. It is Calcutta, the largest city of a sub-continent packed with 350 million people. Once more you land, to view the contrast of broad modern streets, expensive shops and huge factories—and the crowded, higgledy-piggledy old quarters, where white-clad Indians shop at open street bazaars that recall the magic world of the Arabian Nights.

Yet it is time to move on, south-eastwards, away from India and the continent of Asia to the only country that is a continent in itself. A flight high above the East Indies brings you to the wonderful land of Australia, where there are trees whose leaves give no shade, live teddy bears, and four-footed, furry animals that lay eggs. The eucalyptus tree, the koala bear and the duck-billed platypus are, however, only a few interesting oddities of this far-off southern country. As your plane flies above it you will be more struck by its vast desert 'heart', the great herds of sheep on the dry interior plains, its big sea-coast cities, and the waving yellow wheat fields, rich vineyards, and sugar plantations of its fertile eastern regions. You will land at Sydney to visit a city larger than any in Canada, with one of the world's finest harbours. Then you say goodbye to sunny Australia and fly eastwards over the sea to its neighbour New Zealand—but not half so near a neighbour as people often think.



Here you will find breath-taking natural beauty: snow-capped mountains rising from rich green fields, with the blue sea always close at hand. In cool, pleasant South Island, one of the two large islands that form New Zealand, you will see flocks grazing in a peaceful landscape that will remind you of England. On

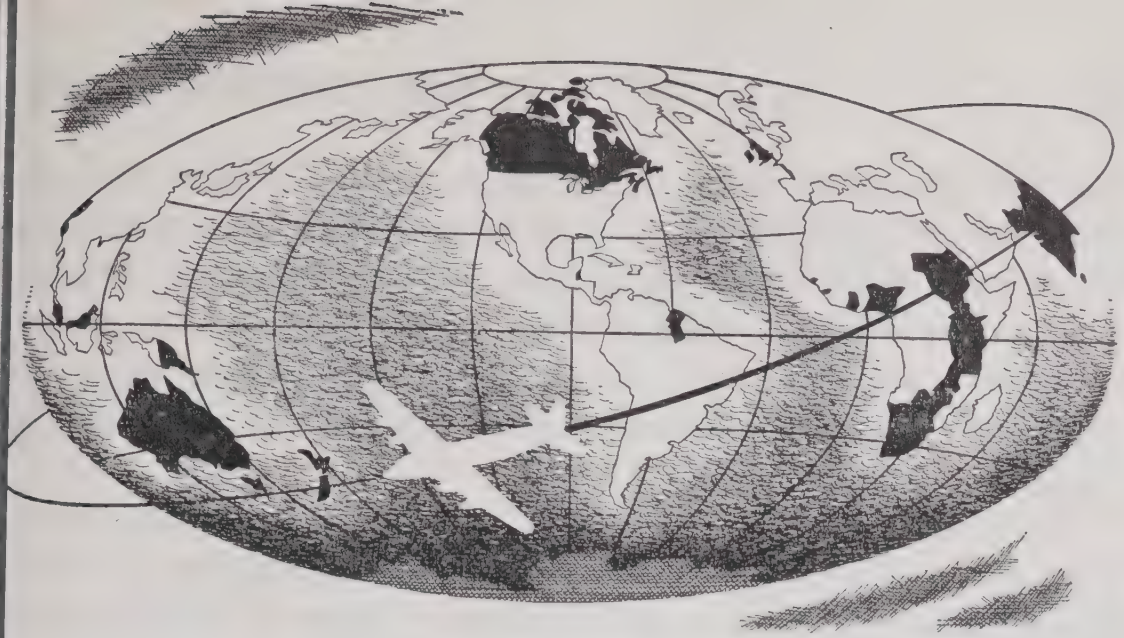
North Island, where the main cities of Auckland and Wellington are found, the fern trees that wave beside the water's edge may make you think of romantic south sea islands—and grass skirted native Maori girls will complete the picture. It would be easy to linger in this lovely land, but the longest ocean journey of all still lies ahead—eight thousand miles across the mighty Pacific to bring you back to Canada. Finally

the powerful engines of your air liner carry you across even this distance, and the welcoming mountains of Vancouver Island come into sight. You are home in your own country once more, though there may still be a long flight across the broad Canadian land before you reach your starting place.

What a trip you have had, all the way round the world, and into many different kinds of countries. You have found their peoples living many different kinds of lives—British factory workers, South African gold miners, Indian villagers, Australian sheepherders, New Zealand farmers. You have seen people of different colours, people who speak many languages, and have very different customs and beliefs. And yet you have never left the British Commonwealth of Nations. All this variety of peoples and places has been found inside that one remarkable partnership.

Canada too is a member of this world-wide partnership or family of nations, and thus all the things you have seen, all these distant countries around the globe, are connected to your country, and to your own life. As a Canadian, you should not only know about your own nation but also about this great family to which it belongs. Then you will be able to understand and appreciate one of the most remarkable developments the world has ever seen, the British Commonwealth of Nations. For remember—you have a share in it, too.





2. The World-Wide Family of Nations

Let us recall again the countries of the Commonwealth that you have visited in your imaginary flight. Besides Canada, they include Great Britain (called in full the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland because England, Scotland, Wales and part of Ireland are united in it), South Africa, India, Australia and New Zealand. Other Commonwealth members, which you did not have time to visit, are Ceylon and Pakistan. Both lie next to India: Ceylon at its southern tip, and Pakistan in two large sections to the northeast and northwest. Indeed, until not very long ago Pakistan was part of India. Then too there is Southern Rhodesia, next to the Union of South Africa, which is growing up to be a full member of the Commonwealth.

And that brings up an important point about this family of nations. It is always growing and changing, truly like a family. The Commonwealth itself grew up out of the British Empire, the possessions or colonies of Great Britain sprinkled all about the globe. The largest and most important colonies in the British Empire gradually came to manage their own affairs. They were granted more and more powers of self-government by Britain until they were no longer colonies ruled by British governors

but free nations ruled by their own peoples. Yet because of the close ties of friendship, these new nations did not want to break away from Britain. Instead they remained her partners, like the younger members of a family who have outgrown their parents' control but still stay linked to the family by their own desire and their feelings of common interest and goodwill. In this way the Commonwealth took shape.

Since this partnership grew out of the British Empire it has been called 'The British Commonwealth of Nations', or sometimes simply 'The Commonwealth of Nations'. Today all the Commonwealth members that have reached full nationhood are free and equal in their rights of self-government. But to mark off the younger members from their former ruler, Britain, the name 'Dominion' has been used for them; so that one often sees the phrase 'Britain and the Dominions'. And this distinction is a useful one, seeing that Britain has always been the centre of the Empire and Commonwealth. Today Britain's world importance has lessened to some extent while that of the other Commonwealth countries has grown. As a result the term 'Dominions' is not so widely used, for there is not as much difference in importance between the central nation and the other Commonwealth members as there once was. Still, the word 'Dominion' is a helpful one and is a good one to know and understand. Another word to describe members of the Commonwealth is 'realm'. At the accession of Queen Elizabeth II in 1952 they were referred to as realms and this term for them may come into common use.

The British Commonwealth, then, emerged out of the Empire which was built up by Great Britain. A very great deal of that Empire is still left, however. If, in your world tour, you had dropped in at British colonies as well as Commonwealth countries, you would have been hopping all over Africa, as well as visiting the West Indies, stopping at the Malay States between India and Australia, and so on. But this Empire keeps changing, too, as some of the present colonies are granted more and more powers of self-government. They are moving along the path from Empire

to Commonwealth, from colonies to Dominions; and Southern Rhodesia, in particular, is well advanced on the way. In fact, we might think of the Commonwealth as the final stage in the growth of the British Empire; for as colonies grow up they rise at last into this free partnership.

Now this kind of development is a most unusual thing in the world. There have been many empires in past times, but they broke apart in war and violence. Their colonies did not move along a peaceful path to freedom and friendship. Indeed, there never before has been a world partnership like it. And in an age where there is so much need for partnership between nations, the Commonwealth stands as an inspiring example for the whole world; above all, because it is built on freedom.

More than that, it is composed of many different kinds of peoples. Britain, Australia and New Zealand are English-speaking nations, while Canada is largely English-speaking and South Africa partly so. Canada, of course, also contains a thriving French-Canadian population, and in South Africa there is a powerful Afrikaan group of Dutch ancestry. India, again, is the home of millions of brown-skinned people who speak Hindustani or Urdu, but there are a host of other tongues besides. Large numbers of Indians also live in South Africa. Yet in this last country the black-skinned native inhabitants far outnumber the Indians and the English- and Afrikaans-speaking whites all put together. Certainly, the Commonwealth is an amazing mixture. Furthermore, it contains English-speaking Protestants and Roman Catholics, French-speaking Roman Catholics, Afrikaan Protestants, Hindus, Moslems, Buddhists—the list could



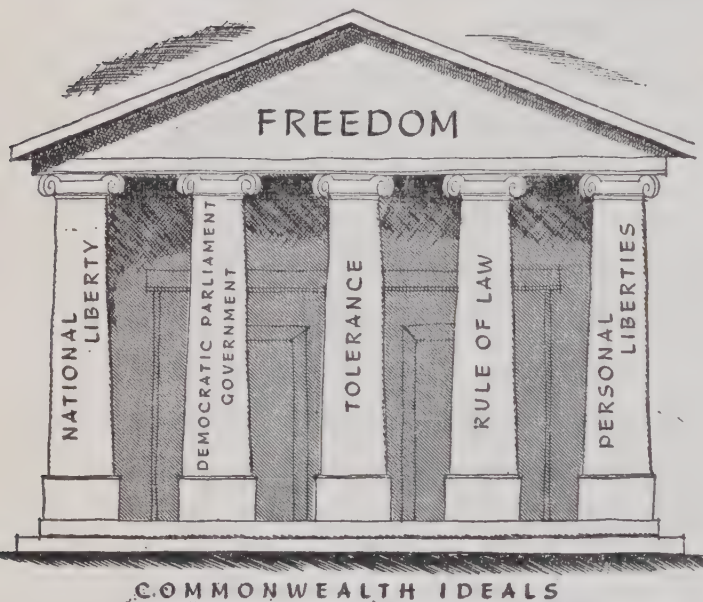
YOU MEAN TO SAY ALL THESE ARE RELATED TO ME!

go on and on. In short, the Commonwealth is unusual in another way: because it represents such a mingling of races, languages and faiths.

3. The Links of the Commonwealth

Somehow these groups hold together of their own accord. How? Habits and traditions formed by past membership in Britain's empire, the fact that so many of the English-speaking people in the Commonwealth trace their ancestry

back to Britain, the feeling that membership in the Commonwealth gives a country more weight in the world: these things all play some part. Allegiance to a single throne and to a devoted royal family also helps to unite the Commonwealth. But above all, certain great common beliefs link the world partnership together. Its members believe, first of all, in freedom, and second, in democratic parliamentary government



on the British plan as the best way of maintaining that freedom. These are the basic ideas or ideals behind the Commonwealth and they are shared by many otherwise very different peoples.

There are other great ideals also that are shared by members of the Commonwealth family; for example, freedom of religion, or a man's right to worship as his faith demands; freedom of speech, his right to speak his mind as he wishes; and the rule of law, which means that the law will protect him against the Government itself if it tries to interfere with his rights by using force. Another Commonwealth ideal is tolerance. This is especially

important, for in such a varied partnership it is vitally necessary to respect another man's religion, race, or customs, and not to attack him because he is of a different colour, or speaks another language or attends a different church. It is true that these ideals, especially tolerance, are not always lived up to everywhere in the Commonwealth, and some of its parts lag far behind others. Yet these are really what the Commonwealth stands for—and, since they are so needed in the world today, this provides still another reason for the unusual importance of the British Commonwealth of Nations.



Now the Commonwealth countries are by no means alone in the world in standing for liberty, democracy, freedom of religion and the rule of law. Canada's great neighbour, the United States, certainly does so. Democracy in France, religious freedom in the Netherlands, tolerance in Switzerland—in countries like these in western and northern Europe the ideals of freedom have had a great development. But nowhere have they been applied to such a large or mixed family as in the Commonwealth. And it is

through the Commonwealth, especially, that they have been spreading from the white to the coloured peoples all about the world.

Commonwealth ideals, like parliamentary government itself, were largely worked out first in Britain and sent forth from there to Canada and the other Commonwealth countries. The little island kingdom not only founded an Empire and Commonwealth but taught it vital lessons of freedom. Thus much of the Commonwealth story that you will read in this book will deal with Britain. From the British Isles a stream of people went overseas to other lands, carrying with them the English language with all its priceless

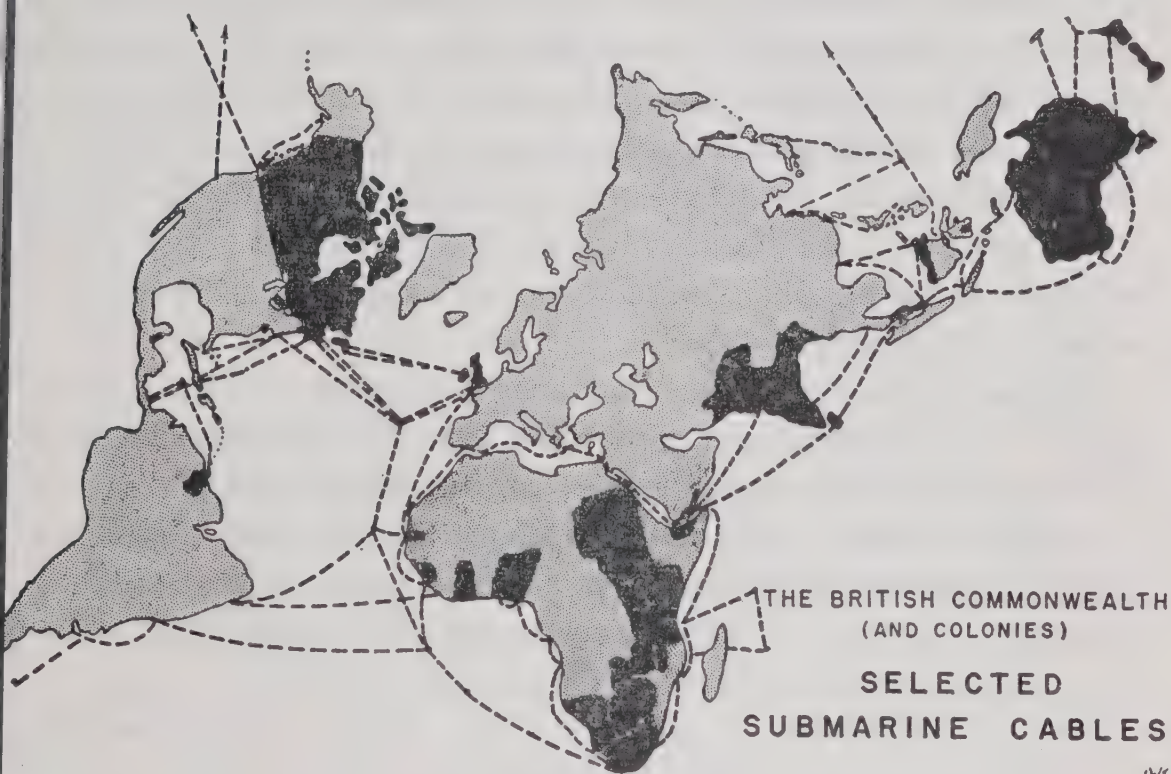


treasures of English literature and thought. In Canada these people met and mingled with the French, in South Africa, with the Dutch. In India they found the ancient peoples of Asia, and in New Zealand the clever Maoris. So there developed that amazing world-wide family of free nations, the present Commonwealth.

More than ideals are needed, however, to tie together a Commonwealth that stretches around the world. There must be other links to join its scattered peoples, and the first is that wonderful open highway, the sea. Certainly it is of tremendous size, but there are no barriers on the broad level oceans, such as the moun-

tains on land, and there is no limit to the traffic the oceans can carry. Seaways are enduring and cheap, and goods and people can travel steadily and easily by ship.

The oceans, then, do not really divide the Commonwealth. They bind it together. Though some of its member countries have great land areas, they were all first opened up by sea. The seafaring skill of Britain's people carried them to these far-off lands where they built up their colonies, and the power of the



British navy kept their Empire safe and united. Today the Commonwealth still rests on the uniting oceans, and depends greatly on its merchant fleets and on the navies of Britain and the friendly United States. Canada sees much of her trade travel by sea to distant markets just as Britain does, and like her has built up a navy to help defend the sea lanes.

In the twentieth century travel by air has been added to sea travel. Communications by sea were steady, but now by air they are immensely quicker. The aeroplane has shrunk the world. A hundred years ago a sailing ship might take five weeks from

London to Halifax. An early steamship of that time might do it in ten days, but now it is only overnight by air. A traveller from London to Sydney, Australia, might take six months in a sailing ship. Now he can be there in three days. This speed of communication has greatly tightened the bonds of the Commonwealth. Cables and radio have also had the same effect. Every day thousands of messages are flashed by wire under the oceans of the world, and are received almost as soon as they are sent. The modern Commonwealth is tied together by an underwater network of copper, steel and rubber. More than that, the radio carries the human voice in a flash around the world. The Queen speaks in London and her message can be heard at once by the Alberta wheat farmer, the Australian steelworker or the Rhodesian cotton planter. The prime minister of Canada can pick up the transatlantic telephone and discuss a question with the prime minister of Britain.

Statesmen, business men, and ordinary people are brought together by these miracles of invention, and the Commonwealth is knit tighter. This is important, as dangers have also increased in our modern world, and defence has become a serious problem. Speedy communication has often played a part in plans for Commonwealth defence. For instance, when the trans-Pacific cable



PRINCIPAL
WORLD AIRWAYS

was laid in 1902 between Australia, New Zealand, and Canada it met the need for a safe 'all-red' (British) route for messages sent between Britain and the far-off southern Dominions by way of Canada. The Canadian Pacific Railway that was finished across our own broad land in 1885 was designed in part as a means of providing sure 'all-red' land communications between the British sea routes of the Pacific and of the Atlantic. And today, in the age of air power, Canada has a particularly important role in providing links for the Commonwealth. Thanks to Canada's position at the top of the globe, many of the shortest air routes between great centres in Europe and in Asia or America pass over our north country. Direct air lines between Britain and the Pacific Dominions lie by way of Canada.

Canada, in fact, is the 'air bridge' of the Commonwealth. Further than that, her situation is extremely important for another reason: to the south lies her friend and close neighbour the United States, while to the north and very near is the tremendous land mass of Asia and the Communist empire of the Soviet Union. Thus, whether she wishes it or not, Canada has not only a key position in Commonwealth affairs but also an important place in international affairs. Both geography and history are responsible for this.

Canada, indeed, has done much to shape the whole development of the family of nations. How this came to be you will read later in these pages, but for now we may say that her position on the map had a good deal to do with it. She is placed across the North Atlantic Ocean from Britain, but not too far away, and like Britain is part of a North Atlantic trading world. She is also a North American nation, like the United States. Thus she could express her views as a North American nation within the circle of the Commonwealth, and Britain would listen, because of Canada's connections with the important American republic. In fact, Canada did in some ways serve as a bridge between Britain and the United States. So Canada's geographic position has made her vitally significant in the Commonwealth, not only because she is a link

between the Atlantic and Pacific members of that partnership, but because she is also a link between the Commonwealth and the United States.

4. The Lands and the Peoples of the Commonwealth

Let us take a closer look at the influence of geography on the Commonwealth. Geographically, there are two main ways of grouping the Commonwealth countries, by their location on the world's oceans and according to their climates. The first method has some value since the Commonwealth grew up around the sea and its commerce, and according to it the member countries fall into three great groups: those bordering the Atlantic, those set around the Indian Ocean, and those facing the Pacific. In the first group are the United Kingdom and Canada. In the second are South Africa, India, Pakistan, and Ceylon, and in the third, Australia and New Zealand. Now it is true that Canada also borders on the Pacific, South Africa on the Atlantic, and Australia on the Indian Ocean; but when we consider where their main centres of wealth and population lie, we may say that they 'face' the oceans already mentioned and belong in the groups already chosen.

In each of these ocean areas there are also important British colonies. Besides the Commonwealth countries bordering the Atlantic, there are, for example, the British West Indies and the colonies of West Africa. On one side of the Indian Ocean lie the East African colonies and on the other, the various states of Malaya. And in the Pacific there are numerous British islands and groups of islands, from big New Guinea down to tiny Pitcairn Island. These colonies, of course, generally belong to the United Kingdom, though Australia and New Zealand govern some colonial territories. Yet the colonies of the British Empire are related to the Commonwealth countries in the three ocean groupings, and this fact further



The Boy Scouts Association

A COMMONWEALTH AND EMPIRE SCOUT JAMBOREE

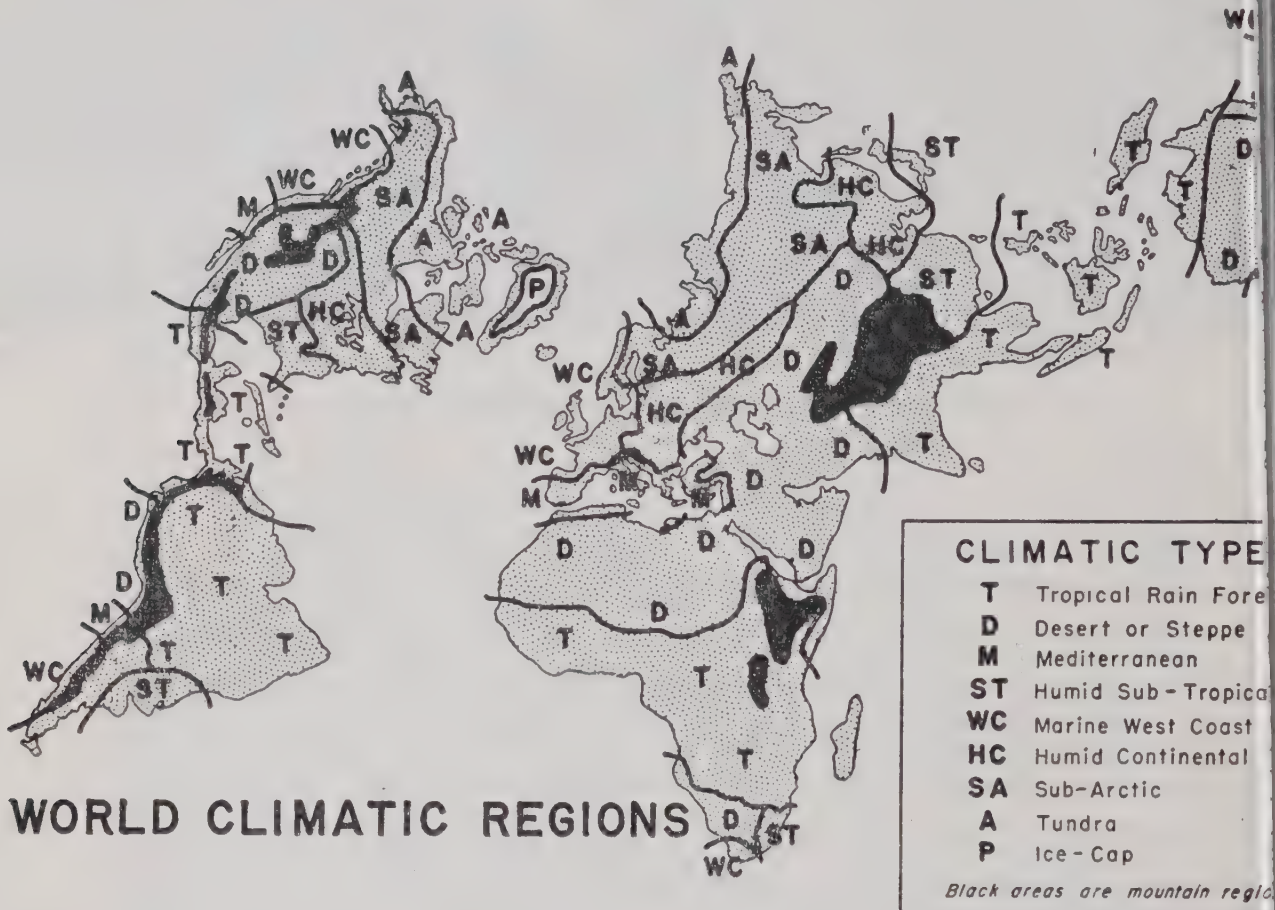
emphasizes the way in which both the Empire and the Commonwealth have grown up along the seaways of the world.

The second method of grouping the Commonwealth countries, according to climate, tells more in the long run about the kinds of places they are, the kinds of people who live there, and the work they do. We find that on this basis the United Kingdom and much of Canada fall within the northern temperate zone, New Zealand and much of Australia within the southern temperate zone, while India, Pakistan, Ceylon, and much of South Africa are tropical or sub-tropical. But something more needs to be said about these groupings according to climate.

The northern stretches of Canada lie in the sub-arctic or arctic regions while Australia's northern lands are tropical. Yet the most developed parts of each country are those which have a temperate climate. In South Africa the climate of large areas is moderated by the altitude, and so a great deal of all three countries may be considered as having 'moderate' climates. In all, Canada, Australia, and South Africa as well as New Zealand may

be called temperate-zone countries: and the important point here is that these are precisely the lands of white settlement in the Commonwealth.

They are the lands that chiefly attracted settlers from Britain and other European countries, because the environment was similar to that of Europe and white men could thrive there. On the other hand the hot lands of India and the African interior remain-



ed the homes of brown and black races. And so we have this general picture of the Commonwealth: that the Atlantic countries of Britain and Canada, and the Pacific countries of Australia and New Zealand have largely temperate climates and are populated by whites, while the hot Indian Ocean countries are occupied by brown and black races. There are, of course, exceptions to this. In the case of South Africa, the white man is established in the more temperate areas. Some white men have also made careers

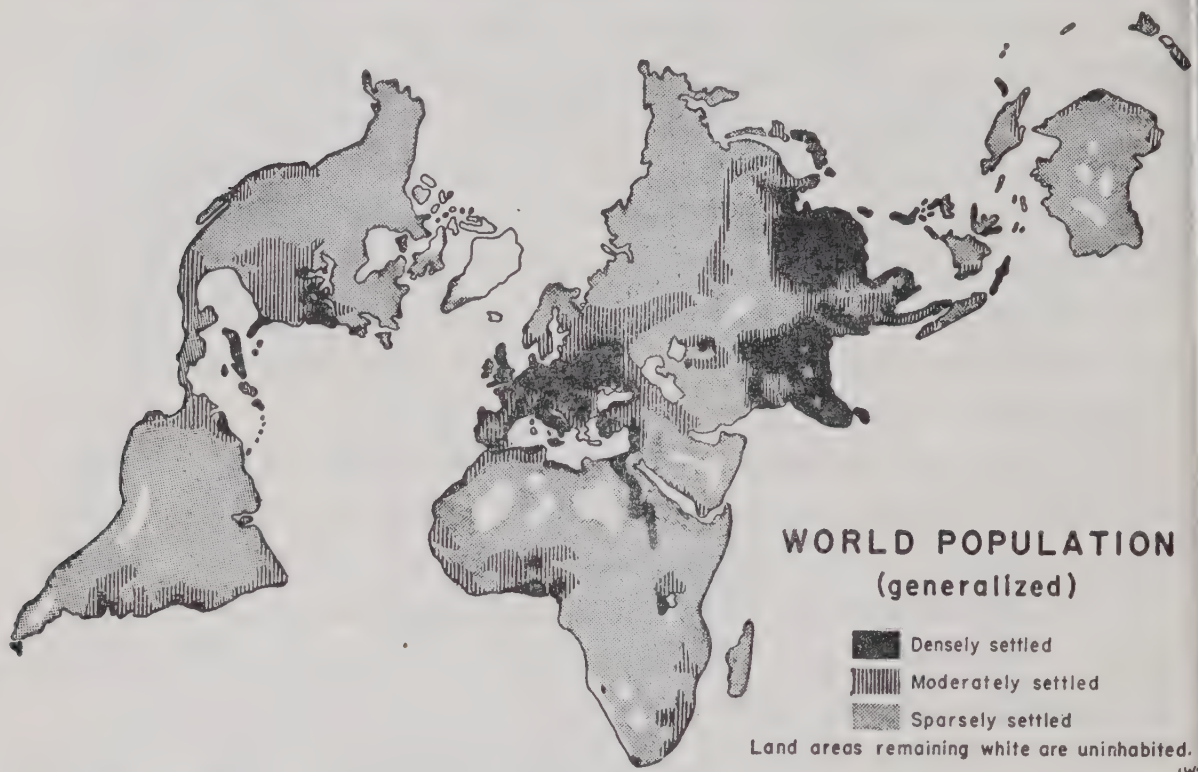
in India, while a small, brown-skinned Maori group continues to live in New Zealand, and black natives roam the hot northern wastes of Australia. These exceptions, however, do not change the general picture.

Yet climate involves other things than heat, and above all, it involves rainfall. In general, Canada has sufficient rain and Britain and New Zealand a plentiful supply, while large parts of Australia and South Africa suffer from too little rainfall. India on the whole has a regular tropical pattern of a rainy season followed by a sunny dry one. The well-watered, temperate islands of Britain and New Zealand are excellent farming countries, though the former is too small to feed her entire population. Canada and India have great farming industries, for thanks to their climate and large continental areas they can produce great grain crops. The drier countries of Australia and South Africa, while having some well-favoured farming regions, have taken more widely to grazing—that is, to the raising of sheep and cattle.

The favoured farming regions of South Africa and Australia lie along the coasts. Here the warm sun combines with good rainfall to produce ideal growing conditions in an environment rather like the Mediterranean or perhaps California. But towards the interior, the declining rainfall means less and less cultivation, until in Australia's case an almost rainless and empty desert is reached. There are deserts too in South Africa, though the high central plateau does support cattle raising. In Canada's case the limits of farming are set rather by cold, for the growing season becomes shorter and shorter as one goes north in the broad interior of the continent. Here also, on the western prairies, scanty rainfall raises problems for some sections. Northern India, although it is a land of blazing heat, similarly suffers from lack of rain because the rain-bearing monsoon winds from the sea do not reach so far inland: river waters must feed the crops instead. But Britain and New Zealand have no such problems of cold, heat, or lack of rain to affect their generally mild sea-island environments.

To a considerable extent the number of people in each of the

Commonwealth countries is determined by the climate and the related development of farming and food producing. Soil conditions and other factors also play a part, but climate is very important. Thus Australia, although a continent in itself, because of its empty desert heart supports only about eight million people. These are most thickly settled in the fertile eastern and south-eastern coastal regions and many of them live in Australia's several large seaport cities. Inland the farms are broad, and further inland the



sheep 'stations' are many miles apart. Australia nevertheless produces about one quarter of the world's wool and one-thirtieth of its wheat, together with a good deal of fruit—grapes, apples, oranges and lemons—and also sugar and meat.

South Africa supports less than three million whites, many of whom are Boer (the Dutch word for farmer) stock-raisers, who live simply but well on large holdings in the dry plains or 'veldt' of the interior. There are also about eight million blacks, who work in the cities or the mines or dwell on native tribal reserves. The natives usually have a low standard of living, and outside the cities largely depend on their corn crop for food. South Africa,

POPULATION OF THE COMMONWEALTH

17,340,000



73,321,000



50,000,000



15,000,000



11,000,000



8,000,000



7,290,000



2,000,000



INDIA

PAKISTAN

UNITED
KINGDOM

CANADA

SOUTH
AFRICA

AUSTRALIA

CEYLON

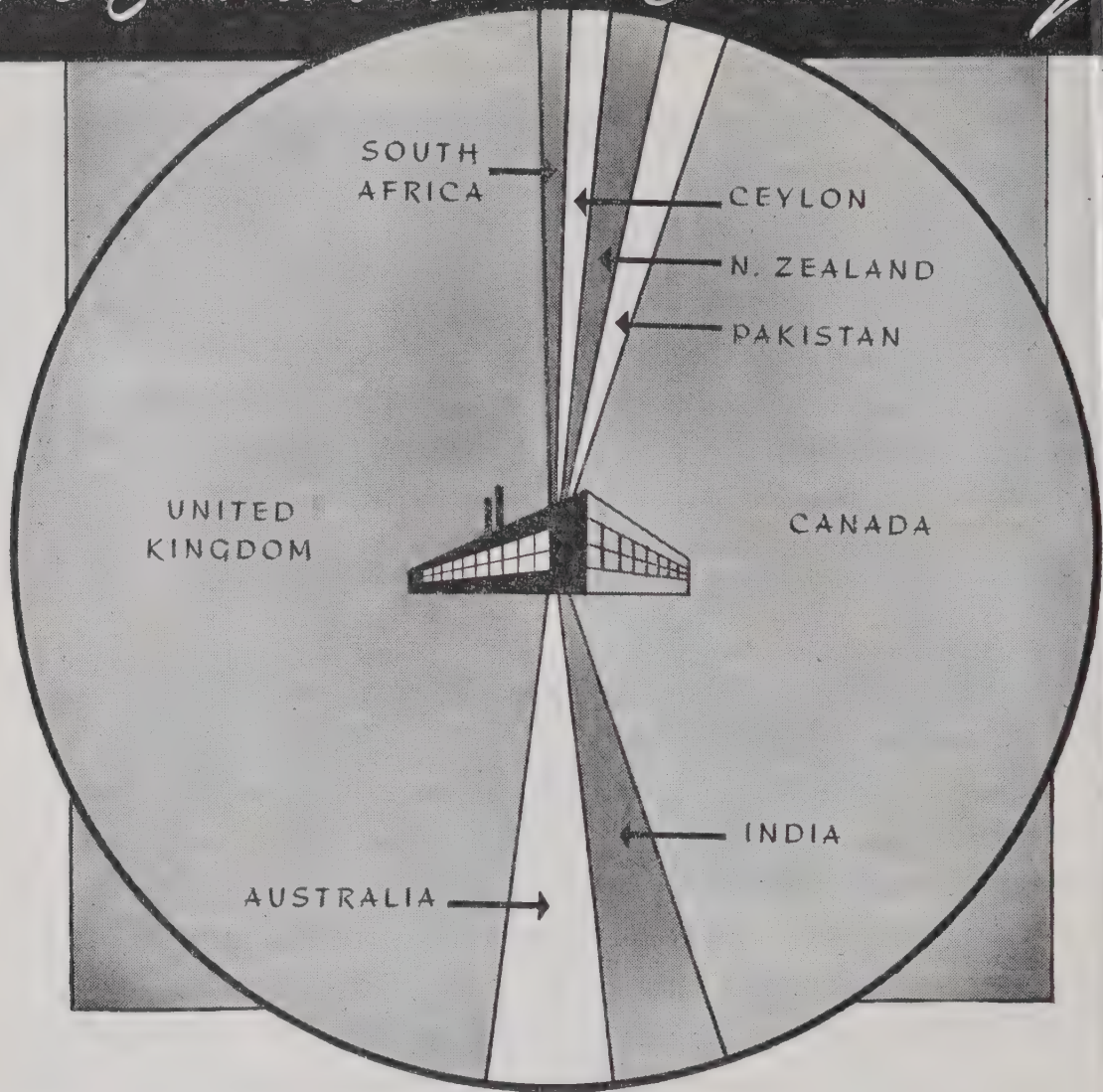
N. ZEALAND

however, does export wool and meat from the interior, and sugar, cotton and fruit from the coasts.

India and Pakistan together have an enormous population of nearly four hundred millions. This does not mean that farming is amazingly successful there, but rather that there is terrible overcrowding, and as a result many people in these countries exist on the verge of starvation. Still, only agricultural countries like India and Pakistan, producing large crops of wheat and rice, could hope to feed anything approaching this huge population figure. Most of these grain crops, of course, are used at home, though Pakistan also grows a large amount of jute for the world market, while India and Ceylon export cotton and tea.

Most of Canada's golden wealth of grain from the western prairies is sold abroad, since this country raises far more grainstuffs than our fifteen million people could possibly eat, and cattle, meat and fruit are similarly exported. But Canada's population has remained small, for so large a country, because vast stretches of the Canadian land are too barren or too cold for extensive settlement. Canada's fifteen million have one of the highest standards of living in the world, but if Australia has a desert heart, Canada has one of rock: the broad Precambrian Shield that divides the eastern agricultural regions from the western, and thus also limits the growth of a farming population.

The Commonwealth Industrially



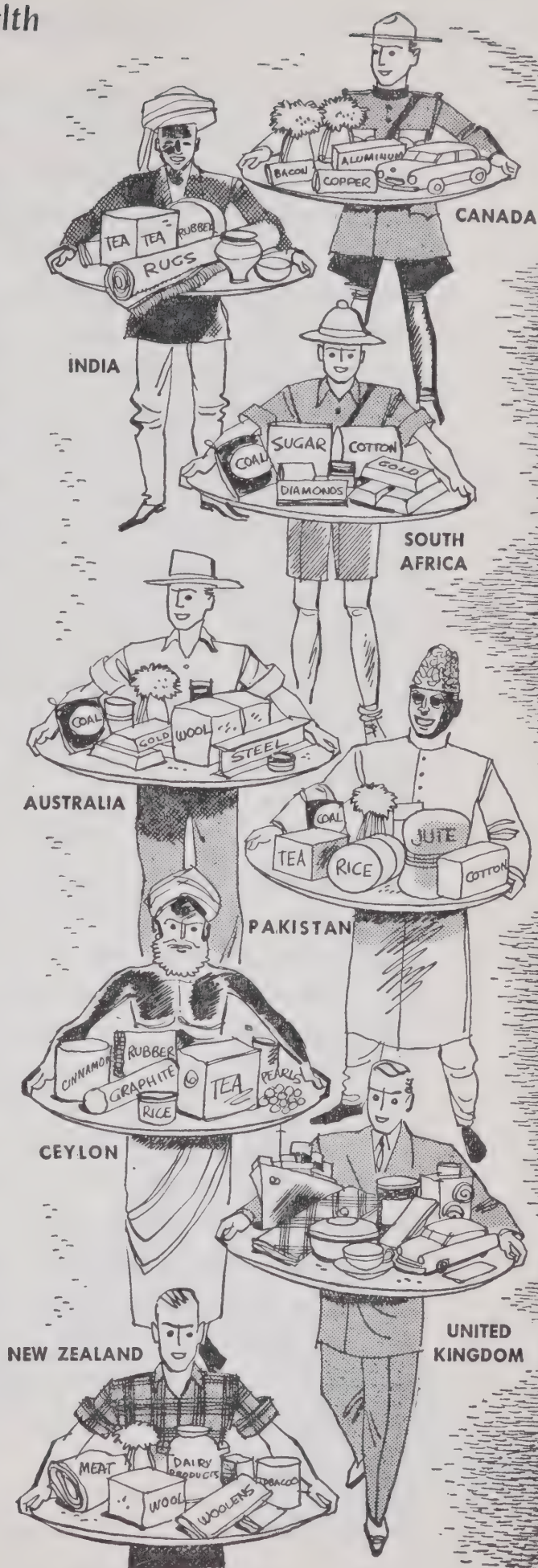
Fertile New Zealand, as might be expected, is much more densely populated than Canada or Australia. New Zealand's total population is only about two million to Australia's eight, but it is much smaller in size. This population density is still in no way comparable to India's; and New Zealanders, like Canadians and Australians are able to enjoy a high standard of living. They eat and live very well indeed. New Zealand is especially noted for dairy-farming and for raising sheep, both for meat and for wool. Many New Zealand sheep travel across the oceans as frozen 'Canterbury Lamb' to feed the people of Britain, and great quantities of New Zealand butter and cheese are also exported.

Britain's lush green fields also make dairy-farming an important occupation, and cattle-raising and mixed farming are carried on

Spotlight on the Commonwealth

besides. But her heavy population of about fifty million—far more dense than New Zealand's, the Britain of the South—is based much less on British farming than on British industry. And this brings up another important point about the Commonwealth. The density of population in each of its member countries is not only determined by climate and farming conditions but also by such things as the amount of industry they have developed and the minerals and other resources that they contain. Britain, for example, through her fishing industry, her world-wide shipping, her coal mining and her busy factory system has been able to support a dense population at a high standard of living. These industries earn enough to permit Britain to buy most of her food supplies abroad.

Industry is important in many other Commonwealth lands as well. Canada has the greatest industrial development next to Britain, and is not only a world leader in farm exports but also in manufactured goods, from cars and trucks to farm machinery and stoves. Australia too is rising as an industrial nation. She now has a large iron and steel industry and



makes many manufactured goods for herself and her Pacific neighbours. New Zealand imports most of her manufactures from Britain, Australia or the United States, but there is some industrial growth here. South Africa is also building up her factory system, while India already has some of the world's largest steel and textile mills. The list of Commonwealth manufactures, even apart from Britain and Canada, is far too long to describe. It ranges from ships, locomotives and aeroplanes to nuts, bolts and safety pins.

The natural resources of the Commonwealth are at least as important as its industrial wealth. Canada and Britain have rich fisheries, Australia and New Zealand have some of the finest and tallest timber in the world, and Canada not only has great trees like the lofty Douglas firs of the Far West, but in her northern forests finds the pulpwood that is so much in demand for the newspapers of the world. As for minerals, South Africa is the world's leading gold producer, and indeed has built her national prosperity on her gold and diamond mines. India produces manganese, coal and iron, and Australia contains more iron and mineral wealth including gold, silver and lead. Canada, however, has the promise of one of the world's greatest iron ore fields in Labrador and, in addition, has a treasure house of minerals in her Rocky Mountains and Precambrian Shield. These regions may not be suitable for farming but their rugged masses contain the 'hard rock' mines that produce gold, nickel, copper, lead, and zinc. Add to this oil on the western prairies and uranium and radium in the far North, and one can see how richly endowed Canada is. And so in general is the whole Commonwealth.

It occupies about a fifth of the land mass of the globe; it contains nearly a quarter of the world's inhabitants. It is made up, as we have seen, of widely varied environments—cold and hot, wet and dry, tropical and temperate. It has peoples of every kind and resources of every kind. The geography of each separate Commonwealth country will need fuller examination later on. But our present glance at all of them together should at least have made plain the range, variety, wealth and importance of the world partnership.

5. The Miracle of the Commonwealth

Although the world-encircling Commonwealth is so well endowed, it would be wrong to compare it in strength and resources with the other world giants, the United States or the Soviet Union. In their cases, power and wealth are united within a single large nation, while the Commonwealth is a loose association of nations scattered around the globe. Although its parts trade together and exchange many vital products they also trade widely in the world outside and often compete with one another. Thus we may add up the resources and the population of the Commonwealth in order to realize its extent and variety, but we should not think of the total as belonging to one great unit. Rather we should think of the resources and population in connection with each separate Commonwealth country. We should remember, in short, that the Commonwealth is a kind of partnership which recognizes the right of its members to be different and to live their own lives and use their own lands as suits them best.

But how did such a loose and far-flung partnership ever come into being? In itself, the growth of the Commonwealth was something of a miracle. It represented the gradual and largely peaceful advance of very different nations to freedom. People said it could not happen; but it did. They did not believe that the Commonwealth countries could grow into free nations and still remain together. And yet, that is what happened. Such an association of nations was something new in the world, and many people could not understand it at all. How, then, do we explain it? That remarkable story goes far back. To begin with, we must start with two little islands in the North Atlantic, the islands of Great Britain and Ireland.



YOU MAY NOT BELIEVE IT BUT WE BUILT IT...AND THERE IT IS!

Learn by Doing

1. One pupil may trace the route around the Commonwealth on a globe. Other pupils act as radio announcers for the respective parts of the Commonwealth. Each, in turn, announce the arrival of the plane in his country and tell a little about his homeland. (1)
2. Pupils prepare a short talk on "What Freedom of Speech Means to Me". (2)
3. Stretch pieces of string over a globe from Canada to Russia, to Britain, to the United States. Why is Canada's position significant? (3)
4. The class divides into groups. Each group finds the answer to one of the following: (4)
 - (a) how zones affect the climate of Australia.
 - (b) how altitude affects the climate of India.
 - (c) how water affects the climate of New Zealand.
 - (d) how winds affect the climate of South Africa.
5. Clip items from newspapers or magazines which refer to Canada's natural resources. (4)
6. In the first section of this unit there are drawings of the government buildings of six of the Commonwealth countries. Can you name the country and the city where they are located?

Facts to Know

1. Name the parts of the Commonwealth that Johnny Beaver learns are related to him. (1)
2. In what way are the members of the Commonwealth like a family? (2)
3. Match the country with a language commonly spoken there. (2)

Canada—	Hindustani
New Zealand—	French
South Africa—	English
India—	Afrikaans
4. Why did the British Empire not break up when the members became free? (2)

5. Complete the outline for the two paragraphs on pages 8 and 9 beginning "Somehow these groups . . ."

Links that hold the Commonwealth together

- I (a)
- (b)
- (c)
- (d)
- II (a)
- (b)
- (c)
- (d)

6. Name the physical links that bind the Commonwealth together.
(3)
7. What parts of the Commonwealth have not sufficient rainfall?
(4)
8. How many people per square mile live in each of India, Canada, Australia, South Africa, and Great Britain? (4)

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UNIT TWO

SPOTLIGHT ON BRITAIN

1. *The Mark of Britain*
2. *The Land of Britain*
3. *The British People*
4. *How the British People Live*
5. *The World Importance of Britain*

1. The Mark of Britain

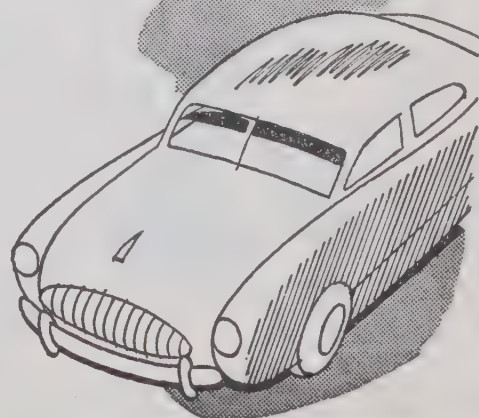
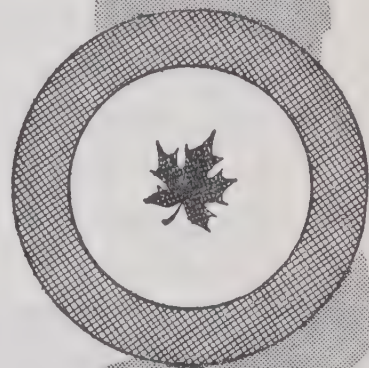
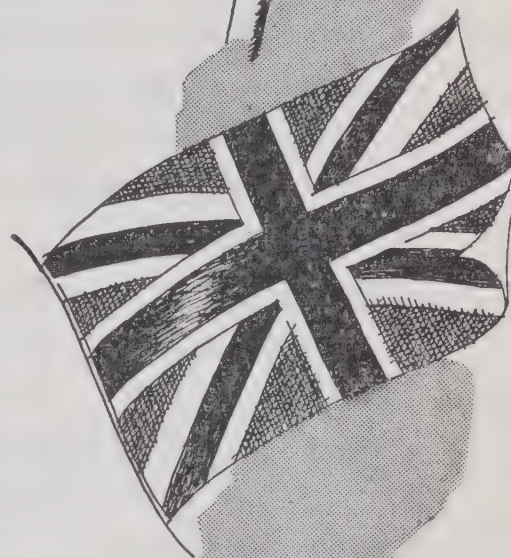
Everywhere in Canada we can see signs of our contacts with other countries and other peoples, so much so that we often take these things for granted and forget that there would be no Canada at all if these contacts had not gone on through the whole of Canadian history. Two European countries have affected Canada especially, France and Britain, and as this book is about Canada and the Commonwealth let us think of some of the contacts with Britain that we see around us.

Canada has a long record of trade with Britain, and in stores, in advertisements, and on the streets we get many reminders of this. Articles of clothing, cars, machinery and a multitude of



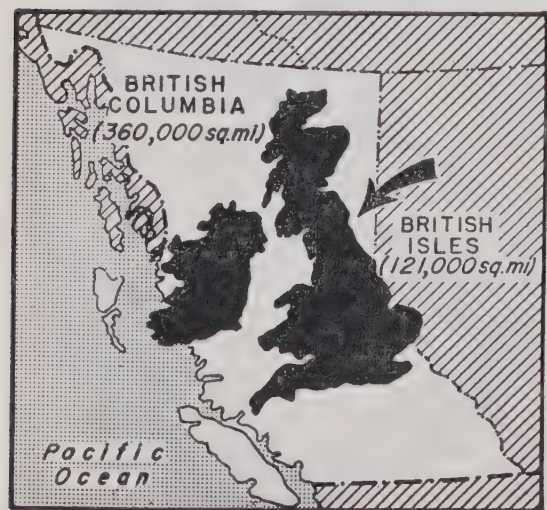
other things bear the stamp 'made in Britain'. In general that mark is a guarantee of good workmanship, as the British have relied on quality to sell their goods. Many of the ships that carry Canadian goods to other lands are made in Britain. Canada also sells much to Britain, and even if Canadian trade is now world wide, the British market is still very important to Canada.

Our contacts are not, however, only in things that we can see and touch. Books, movies, and radio programmes help to remind Canadians that there is also a flow of ideas between Canada and the British Isles, and this has been so for a long time. Canadian citizens have freedom of speech and of the press, the right to hold public meetings, freedom of religion, and the rule of law, largely because these rights were slowly gained by the British people through their long history, and were later brought to Canada. Along with individual freedom there also developed in Britain a sense of fair play and honesty, and feelings of responsibility to home, community, and country.



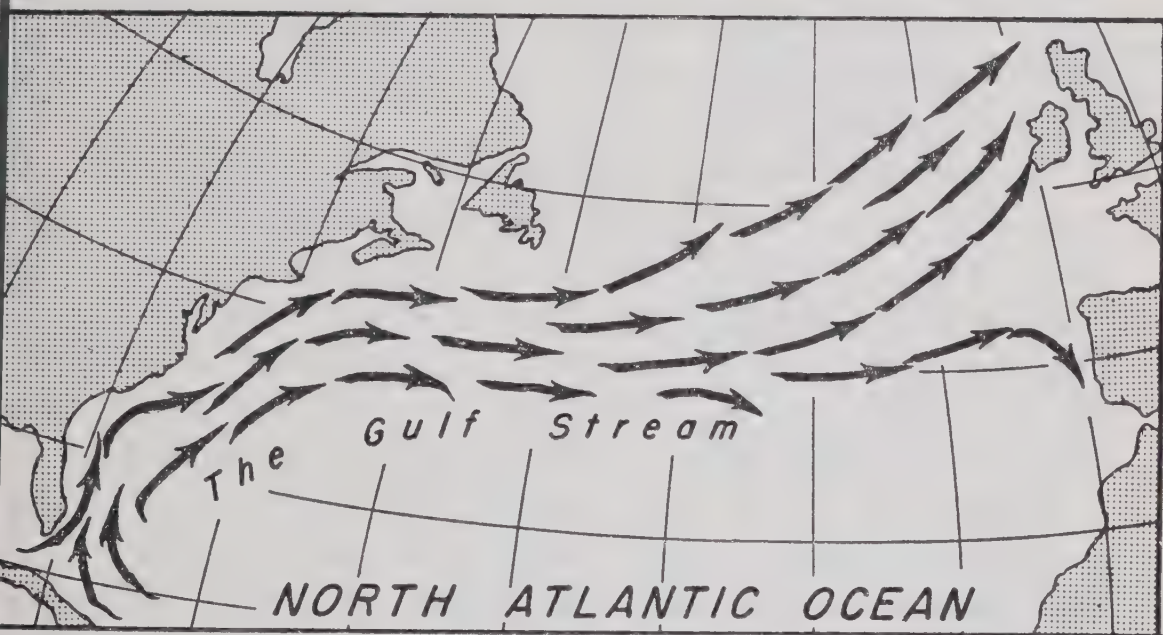
In government, the most important link between Canada and Britain is the monarchy, for Queen Elizabeth is Queen of Canada as she is Queen of the United Kingdom. At her accession she was proclaimed separately in each of the Commonwealth countries. Her representative in Canada is the Governor-General whom she chooses on the advice not of the British government but of the Canadian Cabinet. The great importance of the monarchy is, however, that it is a symbol of democratic government. The Queen does not rule, she has no power to govern, but she reigns and is a living example of the unity of the Commonwealth and the ideals of freedom of the British people. So the Crown is a token or symbol of this unity, and we recognize this in many ways, as when we refer to the 'Royal Mail', the 'Queen's Highway', the 'Royal Canadian Navy', or the 'Royal Canadian Air Force'. Law is enforced in the name of the Queen, and when a person breaks the criminal law in Canada, the trial is always 'Regina versus (the accused)'.

Though the Crown as a symbol is so closely connected with daily life, yet Canadians rule themselves through Parliament. The form and powers of Parliament, the way in which it looks after the needs of the nation, and the many customs which make it respected have been received from Britain. The way in which laws are made by Parliament was first developed there, as was also that great body of rules known as the common law which came from early Britain and which embodies some of the best ideals of British justice. The working of the courts, as for example in jury trials, was also carried across the seas to Canada. Thus, in many different ways we Canadians see the mark of Britain in Canadian life, and we have good reason therefore for learning something about the land of Britain and the British people.



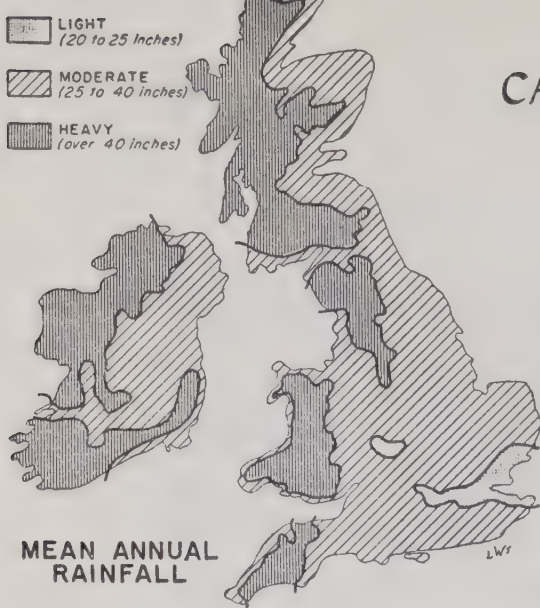
2. The Land of Britain

The British Isles consist of the large island of Great Britain, the island of Ireland and many smaller isles. It may surprise you to learn that they are nearer the Arctic Circle than the province of Newfoundland or the city of Winnipeg. The area of the British Isles is about 121,000 square miles, that is about one-third of the size of British Columbia, or one half the area of Manitoba. In the British Isles there are about fifty-three and a half millions of people or almost four times the population of Canada. The Isles are separated from the mainland of



Europe by the English Channel, the Strait of Dover and the North Sea. At its narrowest part the Strait of Dover is twenty miles wide.

(a) **Climate.** Canadians might expect the British Isles to have a climate like Canada, but this is not so. Britain has been blessed with a mild and fairly uniform climate. This is owing to the fact that the country is in the belt of the winds which blow from the west and southwest. These winds blow over the warm current of waters of the Gulf Stream, which flows from the Gulf of



CANADA AND THE COMMONWEALTH

Mexico along the southeast coast of the United States, then across the Atlantic Ocean and northwards around the British Isles. This warm current helps to raise the temperature of the winter winds blowing over it, and these winds keep the winter climate of the islands mild and moist. Freezing temperatures are not very common, and when they do occur they usually last for only a few days. During the

summer the ocean currents and the winds blowing across them are cooler than the land and so the temperature is seldom very high. Thus the ocean currents and the west winds give a milder and less varying climate to the British Isles than is found in Canada except along our west coast.

The coldest areas of the British Isles are in the Highlands of Scotland, while the north of England is naturally cooler than the south. The warmest regions of the islands are along the west coast and in southern Ireland and southern England. There snow rarely falls, and soon melts when it does. Plants continue to grow during the winter months. Throughout the year the weather may change very quickly from day to day and frequent rains occur.

Because rain falls in every month of the year there is usually an abundant supply of water. Water nourishes the growing crops and makes the country areas lush gardens of produce. Reservoirs in towns and cities are kept full, and the generous rainfall feeds the rivers of Britain which once were more important highways of travel and trade than they now are. The rivers, however, except for the Shannon in Ireland, or smaller streams in the Scottish Highlands, are not suitable for generating hydro-electric power.

(b) **Structure.** The British Isles form a country of marked contrasts in structure. A trip of a few miles almost anywhere takes the traveller through various kinds of land formation and gives a feeling of the compact nature of the Isles. In Canada, on the other hand, the traveller gets a sense of vast distances and great space.

Spotlight on Britain

The British Isles, for their size, have a very long coastline because bays and inlets of the sea cut far into the land. Few places are more than fifty miles from the sea, and most areas are close to good harbours. The main island can be divided roughly into two areas. The part to the north and west is Highland Britain, and the region to the south and east is Lowland Britain.

Highland Britain presents a high, rugged, rocky shoreline to the ceaseless pounding of the waves from the restless Atlantic. The area consists mainly of mountains, hills and uplands, but there are scattered fertile valleys and flat coastal strips. Large areas of the highlands are 'moorlands' covered with low scrubby trees, coarse grasses, bracken, heather and gorse. In places where water cannot drain off, heavy mosses grow giving rise to bogs which are of little use and may be dangerous. Much of the moorland is virtually wasteland.

The Highlands in Northern Scotland were greatly affected by the erosive action of ice during the ice ages many thousands of years ago. Soil was carried away, large stretches of bare rock and granite boulders were left, and barriers were dropped in valleys to form the multitude of lakes that dot the country. Rivers often have steep-sided valleys, flow swiftly and race over rapids and falls. They add much to the natural beauty of the country. The soil of this region is very thin and poor. Along the west coast are deep, steep-sided inlets of the sea set in wild rocky scenery. Across the south of Scotland the Southern uplands extend in the form of rolling, rounded hilly areas that are good grazing districts. In between lies the Central Valley or Rift Valley, the lowland area in which three-quarters of Scotland's population live.



LANDFORM
REGIONS

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Midland Plain | 7. Scottish Lowland |
| 2. Cornwall Hills | 8. Grampians |
| 3. Cambrian Hills | 9. Northern Highland |
| 4. Lake District | 10. Central Valley |
| 5. Pennine Range | 11. Hills |
| 6. Southern Uplands | |

The highland part of England and Wales is made up of four chief regions. The Pennine Range runs from the southern uplands of Scotland halfway down England like a great 'backbone' of rolling hills. To the west of the Pennines is a mountain area famous for its peaks and lakes. Rugged mountains extend through Wales. In Devon and Cornwall the highlands have been worn down to rolling hills and high plateaus.

To the south and east of the Pennines stretches Lowland Britain in the Great Plain cut by sweeping ranges of low hills and clay valleys. This lowland area has deep fertile soils that have long been famous for farming. The Midland Plain extends around the southern part of the Pennines in a great border of red soil and red rocks. Stretching across southern England are hill ridges with a steep slope to the west or north and a long gentle slope to the east or south. These ridges are formed by the layers of rock that come to the surface and between them are long clay valleys. These hill ridges and clay valleys are called the 'scarp-lands'. In places the valleys broaden out to form wide plains, as around the Wash. South and east of the main scarplands the country is varied, consisting of flat lowlands, basins, and chalk-ridges.

Ireland consists of a central plain surrounded by broken mountains and worn-down highlands. Inlets of the sea thrust far into the highland rim, but they do little to help drainage. During the ice age nearly all of Ireland was covered with ice which left sand, gravel and other matter scattered over the plains and in drainage courses. Water backed up to form shallow lakes or to produce huge areas of swamp and bog. Thus the heart of the island is a region of lakes, swamps, bogs and low sandy hills. The land is grazing country rather than farming land.

(c) **Resources.** Nature has been kind to the island of Britain in the resources so freely given. Using these resources the British people attained a position of world importance. One of the most important resources is coal. Coal was formed ages ago from the dense growth of trees and plants that covered the land for centuries. Movements of the earth's surface caused this growth to

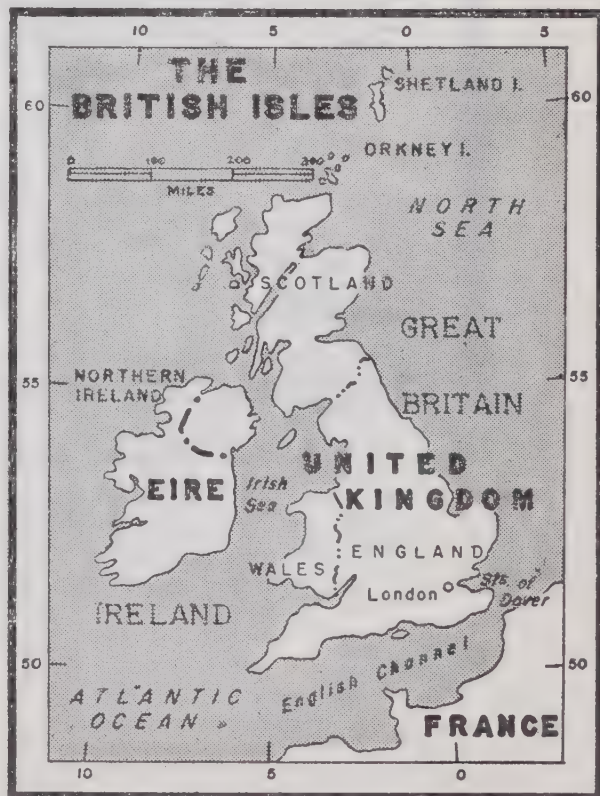
be buried by great layers of sand and mud. Other forests grew and were also buried. Thus the seams of coal were built up. They extended across a large part of the island, and later they were pushed up by movements of the earth's surface as mountains formed. Erosion carried away the greater part of this wealth and left the coal fields in scattered basins from which it is mined at present. Some coal seams come to the surface of the ground and are easily worked. Others are 'concealed' or buried under layers of rock that have to be cut through before the coal can be mined. Coal is still the life blood of English industry today.

Minerals also have done much to make the British Isles great. England has some of the finest china clay found in the world. Limestone is used as building material and is made into lime and cement. Some clays are moulded into bricks. Select sands are used to make glass. Beds of iron ore are quarried or mined to supply that metal which is so vital to industry and life of the present time.

The British Isles gain food and wealth also from the seas. The nearby ocean bed is covered with a shallow depth of water, and the mingling of ocean currents makes it an ideal feeding ground for fish. Thus from the early days to the present time people have reaped a harvest from the deep, catching great quantities of herring, cod, haddock and other fish.

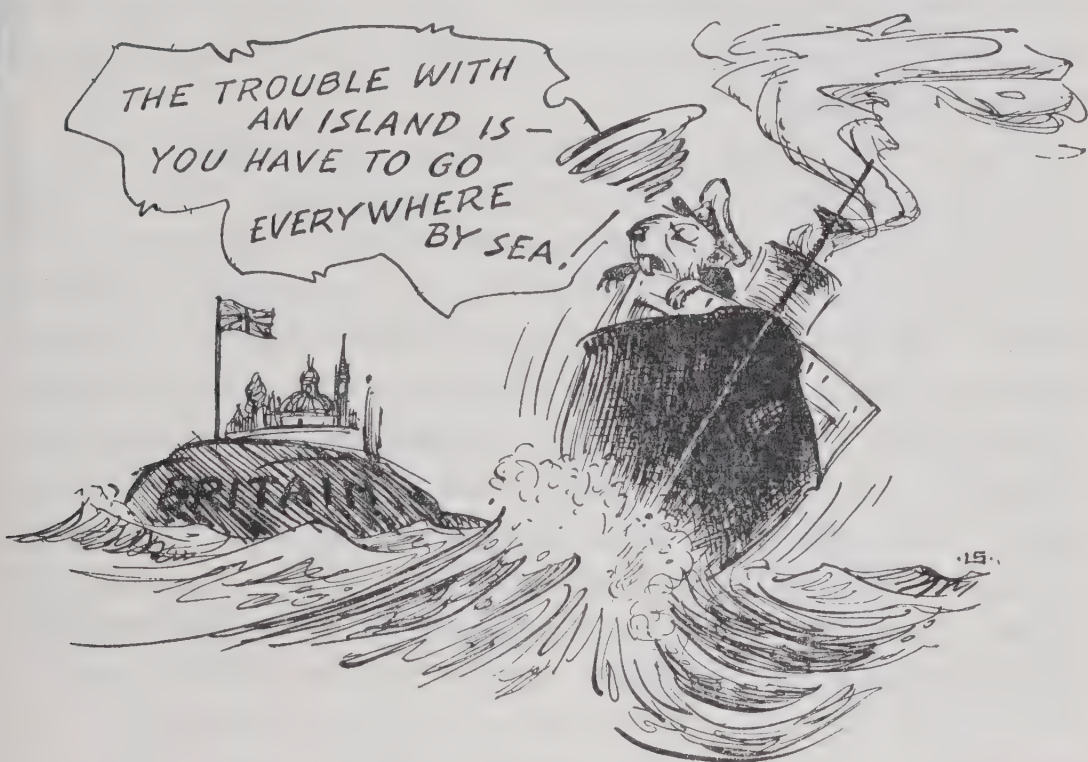
(d) A Favourable Environment.

Britain became a great power partly because of her location. Being separated from the mainland of Europe by a narrow stretch of water, the British people have been able to build a strong nation. Invasions from Europe have been few and the sea has protected Britain from many wars of conquest that have destroyed so much in Europe. The sea became a shield



held safe by the navy for many years, and recently the air force has extended protection to the skies above the sea. Thus the British people were able to develop a strong satisfactory system of government and productive industries without attacks from outsiders.

Britain for centuries has been in an excellent position for trade. In the long and deeply indented coast line are many ports where ships can load and unload cargoes. The closeness of large markets



on the mainland of Europe helped the British people to become world traders. Britain's freedom from foreign invasion permitted the production of goods needed so badly by less fortunate people in Europe. Then the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 made her mistress of the seas and allowed her to trade freely. Trade grew rapidly as Britain found herself in the centre between Europe and the newly discovered Americas. British traders sought shorter and more rapid routes of trade, and in doing so extended British claims to empire overseas. The invention of the steamship freed trade from dependence on wind-driven vessels, and made

Britain a world trader and the carrier of world trade. She sent vast quantities of manufactured goods all over the world and bought raw materials such as cotton, wool, silk, oil and metals, as well as food for her people.

In the nineteenth century half the ships in the world were British and other peoples paid for their use in carrying cargoes.

The location of coal, iron ore, and limestone close together made it easy for Britain to lead the rest of the world in developing iron industries. Coal provided the power to turn busy machines in factories, to operate equipment in mines, and to drive locomotives and steamships.

Industries have been greatly helped by the compact nature of the Isles and the fine systems of transportation. Twenty-four hundred miles of inland waterways form a canal network; 183,658 miles of roads connect great centres and tiny villages. Railways draw the nation together with gleaming bands of steel, and Britain has 52,126 miles of track compared with 57,005 miles in Canada.

The variety in climate as well as highly developed skills make it possible for the Isles to produce superior woollen and cotton textiles. The climate is moderate but of the type that certain geographers claim will produce a maximum of effort, physical and mental. Such favourable conditions go far to explain Britain's growth as an industrial nation.

3. The British People

The greatness of Britain is due in large part to the character of the British people, and this character has been greatly influenced by the mixing of people that has taken place from early ages to the present time. Each part of the population has contributed something to the growth of the nation, and in this respect Britain is much like Canada where a mixing has occurred and is still going on.

The people of the British Isles consist of four main groups:

English, Welsh, Scottish and Irish, and these in turn are made up of several smaller sub-groups. The groups and sub-groups are the descendants of early peoples who migrated to the Isles at various times in British history.

All over the Isles are descendants of an early 'Iberian' people of medium height and dark-haired. Later, Celts came from Europe: they were tall men, fair or red-headed and this type is still to be seen at the present day. After the Romans withdrew from Britain in 407, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes flowed across the sea to England and drove many of the earlier peoples into the Highland areas. They gave to England the Anglo-Saxon or English language, the name of Angleland or England, and ideas about justice and self-government which lie at the roots of the British system of free government today. In the ninth century, blond Viking warriors from Denmark came to plunder and destroy but remained to find new homes for themselves in England. After this the conquest by William the Conqueror in 1066 added some Norman French to the population. Six centuries later numbers of French Protestants found a refuge in England. During the past two and a half centuries England has been the haven to which freedom-loving people could flee to escape harsh punishment in various countries of Europe. Thus the English people of today is a mixed race and contains many sub-groups.

In Wales are found descendants of the early people, and Celts who were driven into the Highlands by the Angles and Saxons. Within their mountain defences these people resisted invasion for many years and remain to the present day as a distinct nationality with a language and literature of their own.

In Scotland the early settlers were called the Picts. Celtic peoples later moved to the land, and Scottish tribes crossed over from Ireland to give Scotland her name. Groups of Angles and Saxons settled in the south of Scotland. This mingling of peoples resulted in the development of two main groups in Scotland, the Highlanders and the Lowlanders.

The Irish of Southern Ireland or Eire are descendants of the

Iberians or Celts. Some Picts settled in the north. Invaders from Norway and Denmark seized land along the coast. Within the past four centuries English and Scots have taken up land in Northern Ireland.

This mingling of races is undoubtedly one reason why Britain has produced many individuals of great energy and initiative. They, in turn, have made use of their favourable situation to build up a great nation, as well as the vast areas overseas which owe so much to their British heritage.

4. How the British People Live

About nine-tenths of the British family of people are gathered together in towns and cities. They are held together by the compact nature of the British Isles and the closely connected ways through which people make a living. They are engaged in mining, ship building, spinning and weaving, making a vast variety of articles in factories, working in offices and in numerous other occupations. All fit into that pattern of life that is British and all are necessary to the nation's welfare. In London, the capital of the land and the heart of a far-flung trade, a host of office workers are carried to their employment by the underground railway or 'tube'. Through their work in the city's business houses they help to buy and sell articles on a world market, which keeps trade moving and industries running.

But coal is the key to British industry. Miners sink deep shafts into the earth and from them bring the hidden wealth to the surface. Coal is used to produce gas and coke, to generate electricity, to keep great blast furnaces roaring, to provide power for trains and machinery. Iron mines yield the ore that is turned into a multitude of articles ranging from knives to ocean liners.

Coal mining is difficult and dangerous. Most coal is buried under layers of worthless rock. To secure this coal, vertical shafts are sunk and horizontal tunnels or 'drifts' are dug at different



levels to follow the seams. Thus a series of openings is made in the rock very much like hallways in a large building. The coal, and with it some useless rock, is taken to the surface where the coal is separated from the rock, loaded into coal cars and sent to the waiting world.

Machines now do much of the work that was formerly done by hand. But coal mining is still a dangerous business. Poisonous and explosive gases may come from the coal; the layers of rock in which the coal seams are bedded may shift without warning and trap miners underneath or close off the tunnel that leads to the shaft. Moreover, the coal dust and smoke from the workings often make the mining town dirty, drab and depressing. Yet large numbers of British people are miners because of the great demand for coal to supply the needs of the nation.

Iron and clay quarrying are also carried on, but these do not employ as many miners or have as great difficulties as coal mining.

The steady hum of machines is a common sound to the greater number of British workers. In the course of the past two centuries

Britain has grown into a great manufacturing country, and for a long time was the most important manufacturing country in the world. With the Industrial Revolution and the development of the use of coal, factories were built near the coal fields and towns sprang up around the factories to house the workers. During recent years, with the generating of electricity by steam plants, factories have developed in districts some distance from the coal fields, and many are now found in the vicinity of London.

Britain is famous for ship building and has brought forth the mighty ocean liners, the *Queen Mary* and the *Queen Elizabeth*. Ship building is a part of what is called heavy industry, that is, the manufacture of iron and steel, the making of machinery,

railway rolling stock and rails, and a great number of such products. Britain's heavy industries more than meet her own needs, and great quantities of metal goods are shipped to all parts of the world. Heavy industry used to be around the coal fields where iron ore was located nearby, but now the chief centres are along the sea coast where iron ore can be imported cheaply. A smoky haze by day and a fiery glow in the skies by night from the mighty furnaces, whose fires rarely go out, mark the location of heavy industries on the Tees estuary, in the coastal towns of South Wales, at Barrow and elsewhere. Ship building has been outstanding along the River Clyde below Glasgow, around Tyneside, Newcastle, and Belfast, and there are smaller yards at other places along the coast. During 1949

USES OF COAL

IN THE
PRODUCTION OF
IRON & STEEL



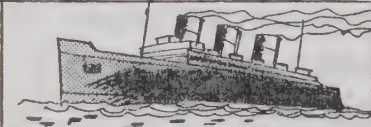
PROVIDING
ELECTRICAL
POWER SUPPLY



PROVIDING
STEAM MOTIVE
POWER



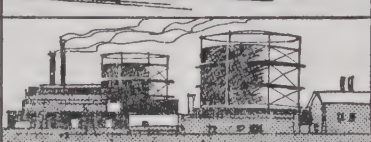
FUEL FOR
STEAMSHIPS ON
THE HIGH SEAS . .



FOR
HEATING
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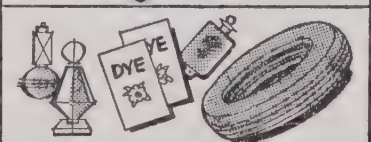
PROVIDING
GAS FOR HOUSE-
HOLD USE ETC.



BY PRODUCTS
SUCH AS NYLON
AND PLASTICS



DYES, PERFUMES
AND SYNTHETIC
RUBBER



British shipyards constructed about 40% of the world's tonnage of craft built, and sold about two-fifths of that amount to other nations. The 'Black Country' around Birmingham that was once the centre of heavy industry, and so called because of the dense pall of smoke and dirt that shut out the light of the sun, has turned from a concentration on heavy industry to the manufacture of a wide variety of lighter metal goods. Coventry and Birmingham in the 'Black Country', and Oxford and London have busy factories for cars and commercial vehicles, most of them for export.

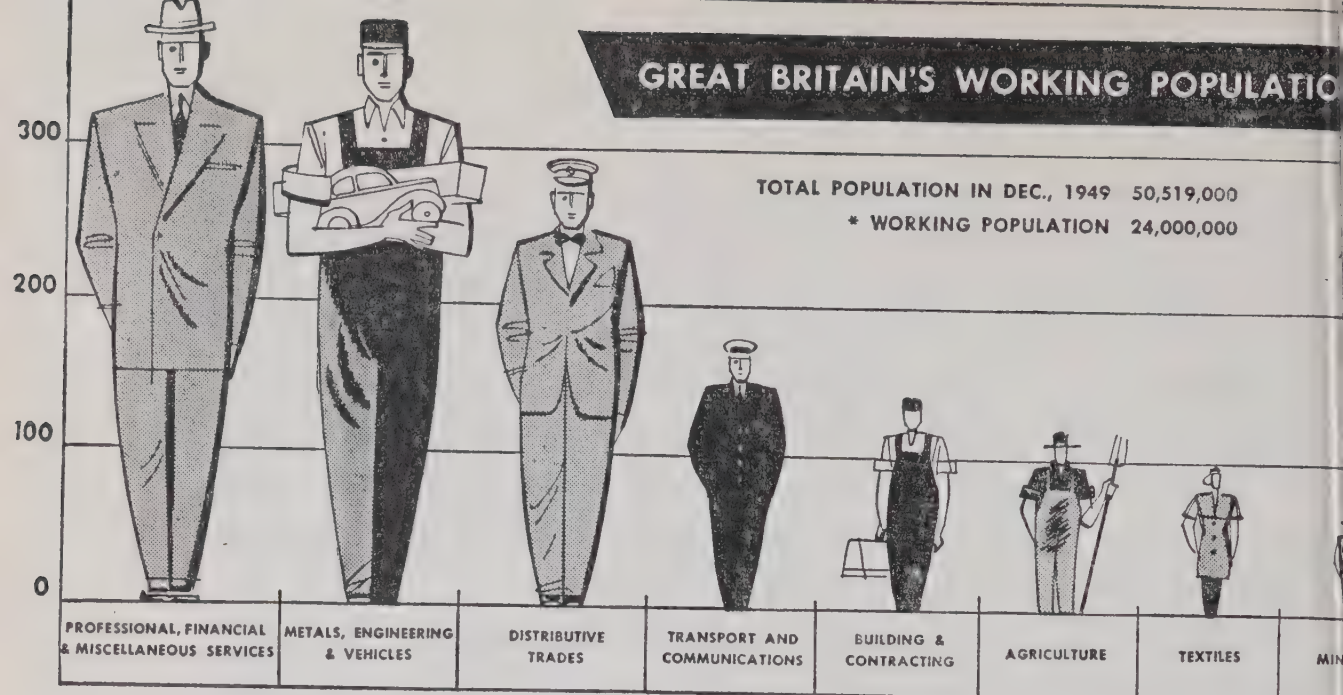
In textiles the stamp of 'made in Britain' is a promise of quality. For centuries Britain has sold textiles to other peoples, and with the passing of years certain areas have become special centres in the making of fabrics. Belfast has fine linen. Cottons come from the towns of Lancashire, and from Paisley and other places in Scotland. The woollen industry is mainly in Yorkshire, and Scotland is famous for the tweeds produced in the valley of the Tweed. Silk and artificial silk textiles are also widely made.

Products of other industries uphold high British standards and provide employment for many workers. The potteries district has long been noted for its earthenware, china and porcelain. The chemical industry supplies dyes and many other articles for factories and houses. The Midland towns have glassworks and manufacture shoes and hosiery. Sheffield is noted for its cutlery. A wide range of industries has developed in various centres and especially around London. About one-quarter of the British people make a living in London, and consequently there is a vast market there for manufactured goods.

Britain does not use all the articles that she produces but ships



GREAT BRITAIN'S WORKING POPULATION



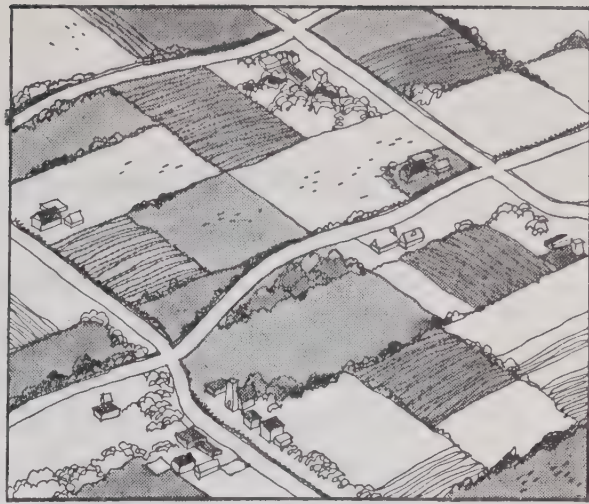
them to other countries in return for raw materials and food supplies. Ports along the coast are centres of active trade. The shrill siren and wheezing puff of the tugboat that pushes a tramp steamer or ocean liner into dock, and the low vibrating answer of the steamer are familiar notes to the men who sail the Seven Seas. At the docks the clatter of winches and the shouts of stevedores tell of the unloading of cargoes from foreign lands and the loading of products for sale overseas. Railways, canals and motor transport carry articles between the docks and factory towns. The volume of external trade is great: in 1949 Britain imported £2,272,481,000, and exported £1,842,996,000, worth of merchandise.

British people have to rely largely on imports for food supplies because there is not enough land to produce sufficient food. About one person in every twenty makes a living from the land. The type of farming that is carried on is determined by soil, temperatures, and the amount of rainfall and sunshine.

Sheep are grazed on highland areas where the soil is too wet for the growing of grain or too rocky and too thin to plough for seeding. The sheep are tended by a shepherd and his dogs and wander over large areas of wasteland. As many flocks continue to graze through the winter months and are not kept in barns as in Canada, the shepherd has to be constantly on the watch for storms that could bring death to his sheep. The home of the

Spotlight on Britain

A highland shepherd is usually in a valley where he will have a garden and some fenced fields for lambs and their mothers. In lowland areas sheep farming is a part of 'mixed' farming, that is, the rearing of livestock and the growing of grain. British sheep have long been famous for their wool and meat.



CONTRAST THE BRITISH FARM . . .

Cattle can be reared in most parts of the British Isles. Beef cattle are generally left out during the winter months. They are much in demand for their meat. But dairy farming is by far the most important. Dairy farmers produce fresh milk, cream, butter and cheese which are the most valuable of all products coming from British farms. But British farmers cannot supply the needs of those who live in the towns, and so large quantities of dairy products are bought from other countries. British farmers have long been interested in fine breeds of livestock and have developed breeds that are known all over the world: Hereford, Aberdeen Angus, Shorthorn, Durham, Jersey, Friesian, Ayrshire and others.

The British farmer is mainly a 'mixed' farmer. On poorer lands the farms are large but on rich lands the farms are much smaller than those of Canada. The land is very carefully and scientifically worked and the yield of crops per acre is much higher than that of Canada. For example, in 1949 the average yield of wheat per acre in Britain was 48 bushels while in Canada the return was

13.3 bushels; oats in Britain averaged 52.9 bushels per acre and in Canada 27.9 bushels per acre. Farms are usually divided into ten or twelve fields separated by hedges. Some fields are kept permanently in grass, and the well cared for hedges and lands make the countryside look like a broad park.



TH THE CANADIAN FARM

The farmer grows wheat, oats and barley in areas where there is sufficient sunshine to ripen grain. The main danger to grain is a long period of damp dark weather. Some farmers, because of location, carry on special kinds of farming: market gardening, orchards, small fruits, hops, sugar beets, cucumbers and tomatoes in green houses, and the like. These special crops often require a great deal of labour, but the products have a ready sale.

Life on a farm in Britain is somewhat like farm life in Canada but the work is of a more specialized nature. The British farmer does not have to face extremes of temperature although he has to be prepared for damp and dark weather.

In daily life the British people face two major problems. First, Britain does not produce enough food for her population and so the people have to rely on imports of food from abroad. Second, Britain depends on her export trade for prosperity and employment.

Despite the fact that the yield per acre is higher in Britain than in other countries, there is not enough fertile land to supply the needs of the nation. For example, Britain produces about one-fifth of the wheat and flour she uses, about one-fifth of the sugar, about half the meat and only a small fraction of dairy products. In wartime, the Isles are in a dangerous position, and foods are rationed to divide supplies more evenly among the people. During World War II the amounts of food allowed were small in comparison to the abundance in Canada.

The government has tried to reduce Britain's dependence on imported food by giving encouragement to improved farming methods. To keep workers on the land agricultural wage rates have been increased to about three times the rate paid in 1938-1939, and the hours of labour reduced. Farmers are assured of a market with set prices for cereals, potatoes, sugar beets, livestock, eggs and milk, and can get higher prices if the costs of production increase. Payment of bonuses for certain crops, loans for farm improvements, and guaranteed high prices are methods used to encourage production of homegrown food.

For a long time Britain's imports have exceeded her exports

in value, because she has had to buy very large supplies of food and raw materials from other countries. This condition in trade existed for many years without causing alarm. Sufficient revenue to make up the difference came from the earnings of British ships and from British investments abroad. But during the Second World War the situation changed. Many British ships were sunk and were not replaced by new ones and British investments, chiefly in the United States, were sold to help pay for war supplies. The price of victory to Britain was the loss of much of her carrying trade and her investments abroad. After the war the need to arrive at a more even balance of imports and exports became alarming.

Britain depends on her export trade for prosperity. When export falls off, factories continue to turn out more than can be used at home, surpluses are built up and then workers face the dread fear of reduced rates of pay, reduced hours of employment or dismissal. Loss of exports leads to widespread unemployment and no branch of British industry can escape this unhappy result.

5. The World Importance of Britain

For the past two hundred years Britain has sent manufactured goods to all parts of the world that can be reached from the sea. Her export trade supplied the needs of nations and peoples. Clothing, implements and equipment of various sorts were sent around the world.

Coal, iron and steel were sold to various countries of Europe and these countries thus received help to develop their industries. Rails, locomotives and ships were supplied to open up new areas to trade. Britain was aptly described as the workshop of the world. For a century and a half Britain did not face serious competition from other nations in export trade, and this gave her world-wide influence.

The export trade depended on the vast fleet of tramp freighters that carried loads all over the world. Manufactured goods went from Britain to distant lands, cargoes were moved between ports



BRITAIN: THE WORLD TRADER

in foreign waters and raw materials were brought back home to feed the busy factories. British ships carried goods for the nations of Europe and for other countries of the world as well. Britain was the world carrier of trade, and other countries paid in money or materials for the use of tramp freighters as well as the services of ocean liners, thus adding to the growing British wealth.

British ships sailed the seas and their crews were confident that wherever the Union Jack went they could count on protection from the Royal Navy. British trade followed main routes of travel that were developed across the Atlantic, Pacific and Indian Oceans. These routes at various points pass close to land masses or through narrow waterways that can be controlled. Control of such vital areas meant control of the shipping that passed by, so Britain built strong fortifications and placed garrisons on such important places as Malta, Gibraltar and Singapore. Moreover understandings were reached with friendly powers such as the United States and the Netherlands for the use of bases and routes under their control. To prevent lengthy delays in the handling of cargoes Britain established a system of coaling stations and repair bases on many islands and peninsulas along the trading routes. Britain was also concerned with the Suez Canal which provided a short route to the East and thereby saved great sums yearly in transportation costs. Thanks to this web of sea power, busy merchant vessels meant wealth and prosperity for Britain.

Britain's vast trade, bringing wealth to the Isles, also made her a world banker. As British capital steadily increased, enterprising people were on the alert to find new areas in which to invest money. British funds were sent to develop resources in the overseas empire and in other countries all over the world. For example, British money and supplies were used to help tap petroleum resources in Mexico and Iran, to establish rubber plantations in Malaya, to undertake mighty irrigation projects in Africa and India, to open up mines in many countries, and so forth. The British also invested money in improving transportation in various parts of the world: railways in South America, China, India, Australia, Canada, South Africa, and docks and harbour facilities in many ports.

London was the centre of world credit as leaders from different countries sought to borrow money to start new industries or to undertake new developments. British capital went into European iron foundries and steel mills, railways, canals and many other projects. British money was poured into Mexico, Central and South America, into distant China and Japan, as well as many parts of the Empire. The interest paid on these investments overseas was a very large source of income to Britain, while at the same time, her investments were a great aid in developing other countries.

During the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth centuries Britain also did much to preserve peace and order in the world. She had much the strongest navy. Her fleets kept open the seaways and British forces were used in many places to preserve law and order. For a century, from 1815 to 1914, no world war plagued mankind, and this period is known as the 'Pax Britannica' because world peace depended on British power.

The two World Wars, 1914-1918 and



1939-1945, brought serious losses to Britain in spite of her victories. The great losses in ships, materials, and investments changed her position extensively and deprived her of world leadership in trade and business as well as in naval power. Since the two World Wars, Britain has ceased to be the power that guaranteed peace on the high seas, and indeed, no one nation, however strong, can any longer do so. The nations of the world have therefore tried to keep peace through the League of Nations after the First World War, and through the United Nations after the Second World War.

In these world organizations Britain has still had a very important part in spite of her changed position. Her importance is not only because of the great place which she still holds in the world's industry and trade, but because of her leadership among the free governments of the world. Her ideals of self-government and her experience in dealing with many peoples give her a leading role in international affairs. Her system of parliamentary government and her principles of law and justice have been copied throughout the Commonwealth, and have influenced many other countries. As Canadians we share in these ideals, and if we are to understand and value them we must go back and study Britain's story to see how they have come down into our modern world.

Learn by Doing

1. Bring goods, pictures or the names of articles which are found around the home and which have been made in Britain. (1)
2. Make an asbestos fibre map of the surface of the British Isles.
3. Committees of pupils tell the class the way in which the following factors helped make Britain great. (2)
 - (a) location
 - (b) resources
 - (c) transportation
 - (d) climate
4. Ask a recent immigrant from Britain to speak to the class.
5. A group of pupils pretend they are a coal mining family. A picture of the life and work of a miner comes out of a family discussion.

Facts to Know

1. Complete the outline showing some of Britain's contributions to Canada. (1)

<i>Goods from Britain</i>	<i>Ideas from Britain</i>	<i>Aspects of Government</i>
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2. Study the surface map on page 31 and outline where the good agricultural lands would probably be located. (2)
3. Name three British ship building centres. (4)
4. Match the following cities and manufactured products. (4)

Birmingham—	cutlery
Belfast—	steel
Manchester—	cottons
Sheffield—	linen
5. Write a paragraph describing the way in which farming differs in Canada and Britain. (4)

6. In what way did the Second World War create problems in Britain? (5)
7. List four ways in which Britain has given outstanding leadership in the past century. (5)

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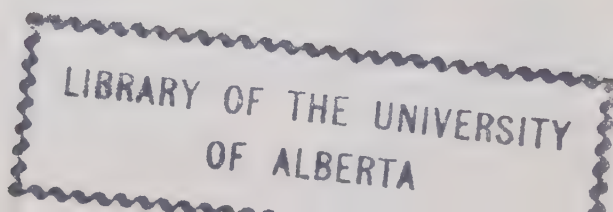
UNIT THREE

THE FOUNDATIONS OF THE BRITISH NATION

1. *Migration and Settlement to 1066*
2. *The Middle Ages*

Britain two thousand years ago was a frontier country. Such a thought may come as a surprise. When we read of Britain or visit the Isles today we see the country as an old, well-settled land. Farms and fields divided by hedges give the countryside the appearance of a large well-kept garden. The abundant rainfall and moderate climate produce a rich, vivid green in grass and trees. The country is aged and ageless. People have lived on the land so long that a single life seems but a brief time in the passing of years. Today, towns and cities throb with the whirring of machines, the rush of traffic, and the movement of people; but everywhere also old buildings and historic sites bridge the gap between Britain's past and present, they are rich with the stories and traditions of bygone days.

Centuries ago the Isles were very different. The forest was king and stretched for hundreds of miles over hill and plain and

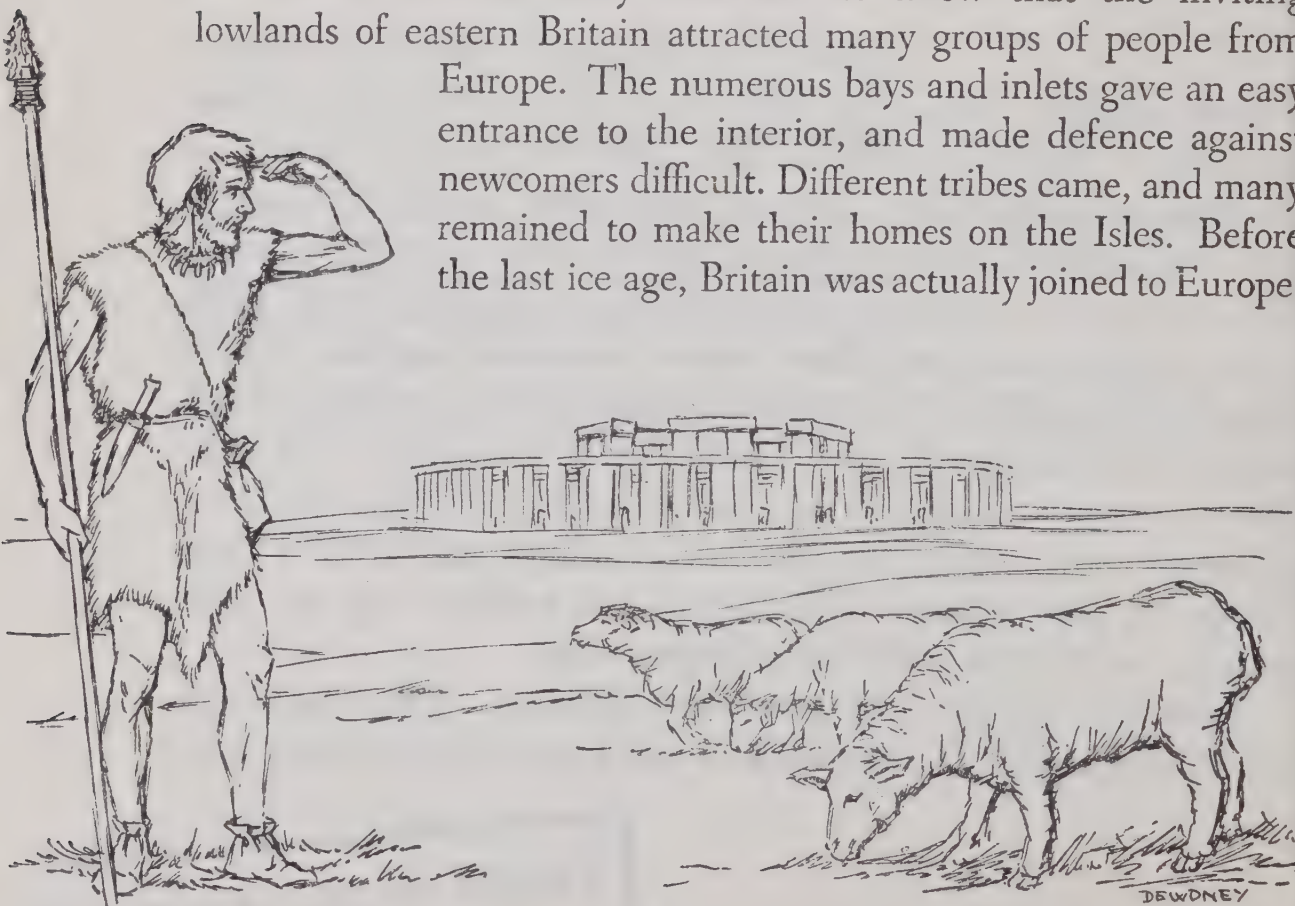


mountain. Waving tree tops and branches sheltered singing birds, and across the forest floor, moist and mossy, went wild beasts large and small. Early man hunted this game or obtained food from the fish and fowl that abounded in the marshes. Britain was like early Canada, a wild land that waited to be settled.

The story of early Britain is not contained in any written records. It has been found by digging up the remains of early homes, tools, utensils, pottery, ornaments, weapons, parts of skeletons, animal bones, ashes, cave dwellings, flint mines and other things; and from these bits and pieces has been put together the story of how people lived in what are now called prehistoric times.

1. Migration and Settlement to 1066 .

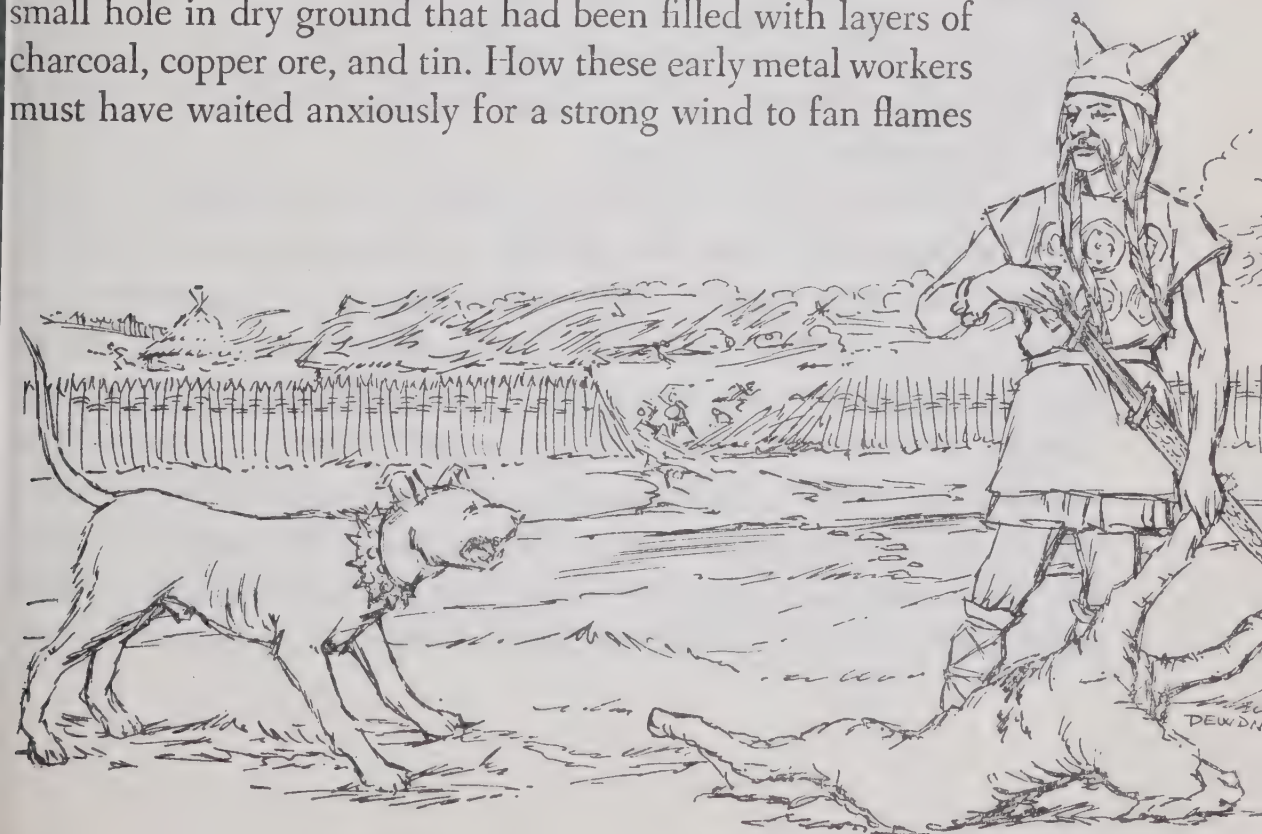
(a) **Prehistoric Britain and the Coming of the Celts.** In that early time we do know that the inviting lowlands of eastern Britain attracted many groups of people from Europe. The numerous bays and inlets gave an easy entrance to the interior, and made defence against newcomers difficult. Different tribes came, and many remained to make their homes on the Isles. Before the last ice age, Britain was actually joined to Europe.



But as the weather became colder a vast sheet of snow and ice slowly grew over the land. Only the southern parts of the land escaped, and here early man had a grim struggle to live. In time the ice melted, and great changes were revealed. The weight of the ice cap had broken the bonds with Europe by pushing down large areas of land, thereby leaving Britain as a series of islands. Any new settlers had to come by water.

Tribes of people braved the sea to reach the Isles. These earliest settlers are usually referred to as Iberians. They were about five and a half feet in height, with strong bones and well developed muscles. They had large skulls, pleasant features, and dark hair, skin and eyes, although some were probably fair. These tribes lived in villages surrounded by earthwork defences which protected families and livestock against attack. They pastured flocks and herds in open upland areas. Weapons and implements were made from polished flints. They developed spinning, weaving and pottery making. Homes were usually pit dwellings; circular holes dug in the ground with the earth thrown up to form the walls, and covered with thatched roofs.

Later arrivals from Europe brought with them the use of bronze. Bronze is a mixture of copper and tin. It was probably smelted in a small hole in dry ground that had been filled with layers of charcoal, copper ore, and tin. How these early metal workers must have waited anxiously for a strong wind to fan flames



from the charcoal into a fierce heat to melt the ores to produce bronze. Bronze was poured into moulds to form axes and spear-heads or beaten to make shields, swords, daggers and various implements.

Religious practices influenced daily life. These people believed in a life after death and buried their important dead in tombs with ornaments, weapons, tools, and food. Some tombs were built of huge slabs of stone weighing several tons. But the most impressive work was the magnificent temple of Stonehenge, the ruins of which are one of the most remarkable sights in the British Isles. It consisted of four circular lines of huge stones with an altar stone at the centre and surrounded by a double earth wall and ditch. What endless toil and sacrifice must have been necessary to put these massive stone pillars and great lintels or cross pieces into place!

About six centuries before Christ a new race of people called the Celts began to invade Britain. Although few in number, they had iron weapons and were able to gain control over the Isles. Their language displaced others and the Celtic tongue is spoken in Ireland, Scotland and Wales to the present day. The Celts were tall and muscular with fair skins, blond hair and blue eyes. They were very warlike and their tribes fought with the people already in the Isles and with each other. Gradually they married with the people already there.

The influence of the Celts was great. Not only did they give their language and the use of iron to England, but they also started trade with Europe, money came into use, and towns were begun. Craftsmen made articles for trade abroad and to satisfy the needs of the surrounding country. The Celts believed that trees, springs, rivers, rocks, and hills had spirits (fairies, dwarfs and elves); that thunder, lightning, rain and fire were special powers, and that all the spirits had to be pleased. No sacrifice, even life itself, was too great to be given to these deities. Their priests, called Druids, stated the duties that people owed to the gods,



and acted as judges to settle disputes on a fair and just basis. The beliefs and fears of the Celts are with us today in many superstitions contained in old stories handed down from parents to children, particularly in Wales and Scotland.

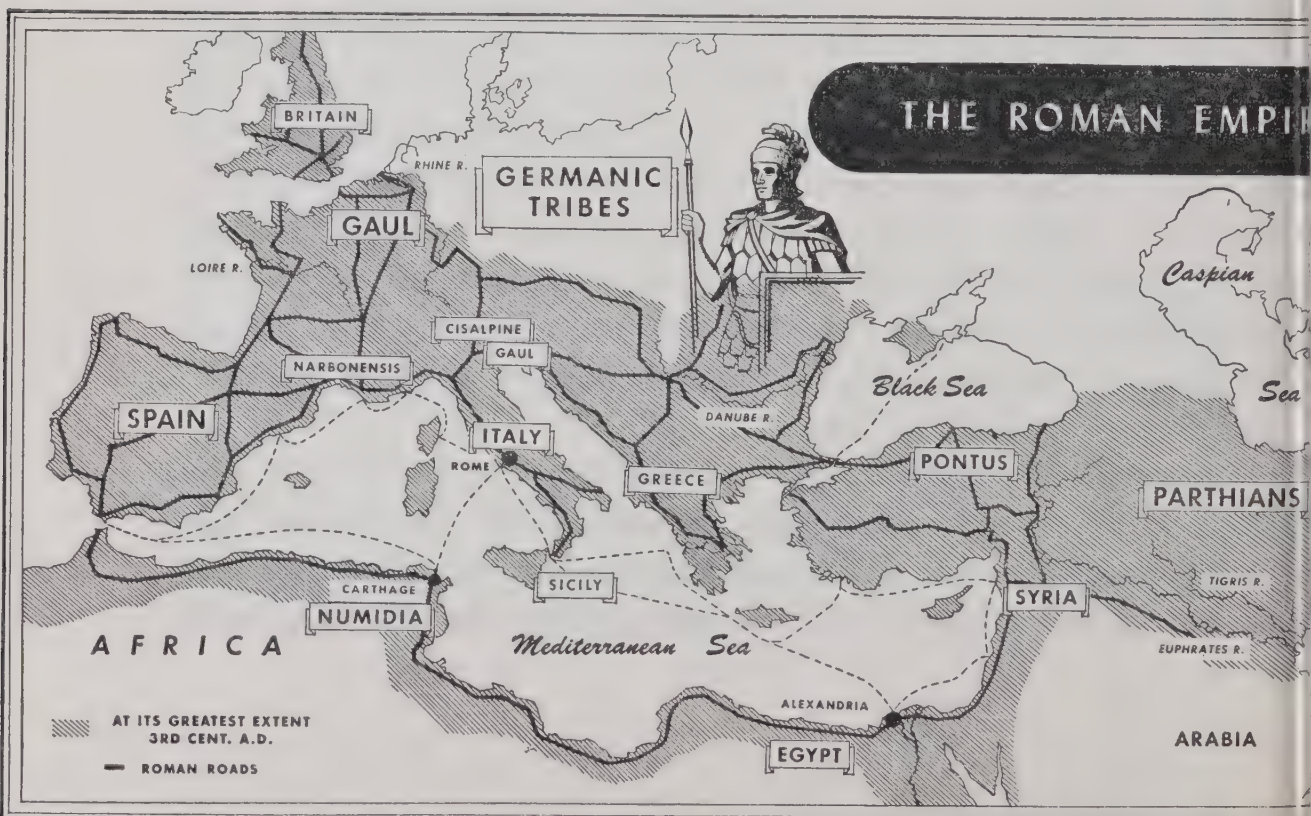
(b) **Roman Britain.** While the Celts extended their influence over Britain, Roman legions were conquering lands around the Mediterranean Sea. A mighty empire was built up and Roman forces were sent against more remote areas. Led by Julius Caesar the legions conquered land in what is now France and then invaded England. The British people resisted so fiercely that Roman troops were withdrawn, and Britain remained unconquered on the fringe of the Roman Empire for another century.

But in 43 A.D. a well-planned expedition established the Roman forces in southern England. Fierce resistance was broken by the Roman legions, and the Celtic tribes either accepted Roman rule or were pushed into the rocky wilds of Wales and Scotland. England became a Roman province. However raids continued from Scotland, and to gain security the Romans built a great wall clear across the land, seventy miles long and extending from Solway to Tyne. Protected by this wall, England had peace for two centuries as part of the Roman Empire.

Although England was far removed from the centre of the Roman Empire and could only be reached by sea, Roman rule had a great influence. The land was divided into districts under Roman officials, but the British people lived on in their tribal

communities ruled by their own chiefs. The Romans collected taxes and ended tribal wars. The old earthworks around towns and villages fell into disrepair, and new centres grew up without any defence works as the Romans introduced new ways of making a living. They cleared rich valley land of its forest covering and grew cereal crops and vegetables. Yields were great and many people turned from grazing to farming. The Romans also built famous roads and bridges, some of which exist to the present day, and over these passed a flourishing trade. Craftsmen were kept busy supplying luxuries as well as necessities. Stately mansions were built with fine mosaic floors, lighted by windows with glass in them, and heated by furnaces during cold weather. Roman coinage, weights and measures made buying and selling easier. Harbours were improved, ports were constructed, and fleets of merchant ships plied along the English coast or crossed the Channel and went beyond to trade with other parts of the Roman Empire. London became a busy trading centre.

Roman rule lasted almost four centuries and affected much more than material things. Law and order were established, and before the end of the Roman period Christianity was brought in, as we shall see later in Unit VII. By the fourth century,



however, Roman power began to decline, and barbarian hordes broke through the defences around the Empire. Such distant parts as Britain could no longer be protected, and finally in 410 the last of the legions were recalled, and Britain was left to the British people.

(c) **The Anglo-Saxon Conquest.** The defence of Britain proved to be too much for the British people after the Roman legions left. A host of raiders, Angles, Saxons and Jutes, came from Denmark and northern Germany in tiny ships driven by sails and oars. They plundered coastal areas and pushed far inland, following the rivers and Roman roads. Fire and destruction were spread by these robbers as homes, churches, villages and towns became their prey. No part of England was safe. In battle after battle the British rallied to resist the invaders. According to legend, one of the leaders of this time was the brave and good king, Arthur, whose deeds were preserved in stories along with those of his famous followers, the Knights of the Round Table. In time the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes brought over their wives, children, slaves, cattle and household goods to start new homes in the island. Many Britons were driven from their lands into the hilly country of Wales, the west and north; some were made slaves, others remained, and in time intermarried with their conquerors. The Angles and Saxons came in larger numbers than the Jutes, and from the name of Angles the country became known as Angle-land or England. When England was finally conquered there was little left of the earlier civilizations; the language, religion, government, manners and customs were changed.

As these people came by tribes they set up many little kingdoms, each with its own ruler. The Jutes settled in the south-eastern part of England called Kent, most of the southern part was controlled by the Saxons, and the Angles took over the north. There was continual rivalry and war as ruler after ruler tried to conquer neighbouring kingdoms. Slowly the many kingdoms were fused into larger ones. At length a kingdom of the West Saxons called Wessex became stronger than any of the others. By 829 King

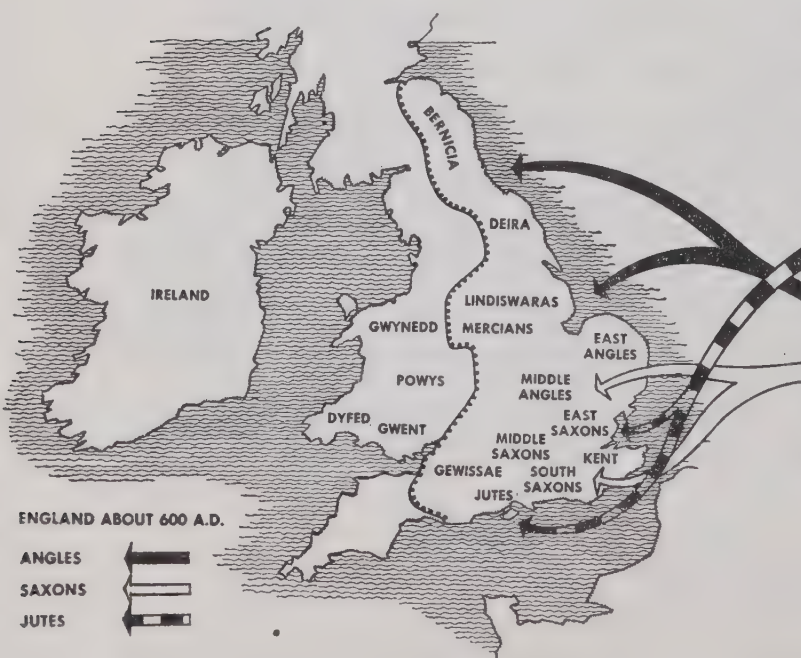
Egbert compelled the rulers of the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Welsh to accept the leadership of Wessex. This was a united rule in name only, but it did encourage later rulers of Wessex to claim the kingship of all England, thus keeping alive an ideal around which a strong national union was built.

The Anglo-Saxons who came to England were pagans and worshipped gods and goddesses, Woden, the god of war, Thor, the thunder god, and others. Some of the names of days of the week remind us of these, such as Thursday or 'Thor's Day'.

In 597 an important change began, however, with the re-introduction of Christianity by the missionary Augustine who had been sent from Rome by the Pope. With a group of clergymen he landed in Kent where the wife of the king was already a Christian. Augustine and his followers explained the religion to the king who allowed them to preach in his land and to live in Canterbury, his capital. Canterbury thus became a centre of church work, and Christianity gradually spread through the land. To this day the Archbishop of Canterbury is head of the Church of England.

The Anglo-Saxons were country dwellers who loved open spaces. Where several families settled a village was formed. The man at the head of the village was a thane or lord, and his house was the most important. The land belonged to the village not to the thane, however, and people worked together. The good farming land was usually divided into three great fields, and each field

was broken up into plots of about one acre in size by thin lines of unplowed sod, and the plots were distributed among the families. Each free man received his share. The rights to meadow hay land were given in turn to each farmer. Beyond the three fields and meadow lay the wasteland and forest



which were used by all the village inhabitants. The Anglo-Saxons were proud of their freedom, and as free men they made their own laws, kept order, and saw that justice was done. However, disorder at home and the need for defence against roving bands of sea raiders caused the free men to surrender slowly some of their rights to the thane or lord in return for protection. Many became tenant farmers and paid rent to the lord for the use of their land by giving produce, services, and labour on the lord's land. Thus what is called a feudal system of holding land came into being.

The Anglo-Saxons had some remarkable ideas about free government. Anglo-Saxon rule did not depend on armed force alone. There was for example, a group of leading men, called the Witan, which elected their king. This man was then crowned by the Archbishop of Canterbury with great ceremony, and although the king made law by royal orders, he often sought the advice of the Witan.

Even more important was the fact that the freemen and landholders had some share in local government. Anglo-Saxon England was divided into shires or counties, each of which had a sheriff or shire-reeve representing the king, and the counties were divided into hundreds, each of which also had a king's representative called the reeve. But in both shires and hundreds there were also local assemblies of the freemen called moots, and these had a share in

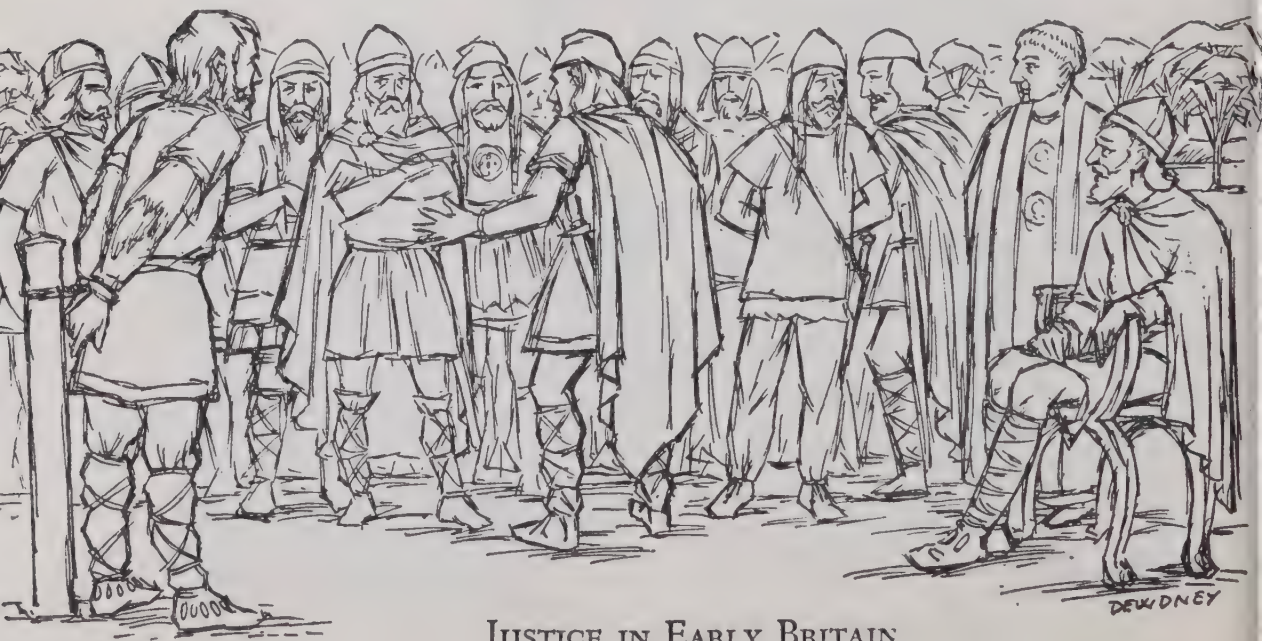


ST. AUGUSTINE BRINGS CHRISTIANITY

government and decided what were the local laws. We must not think of this system of local government as lasting directly to our own day, but the Anglo-Saxon idea that the people had a share in governing their own communities never died out in England, and from England it was brought to this continent.

(d) **Danish Invasions.** The rich land of England continued to attract other invaders from across the sea. They were the Danes, Northmen or Vikings who spread terror and destruction over Europe. They came without warning and were fierce warriors. Many had shirts made of steel links; they used bows, arrows, javelins and shields, some had large swords that were passed from father to son, but the most loved weapon was the huge battle-axe that was swung with both hands. The Northmen plundered and burned villages, murdered the inhabitants, and carried off loot. When larger groups came to England, they set up fortified camps, and plundered the countryside at will. Only in Wessex did they find bitter resistance, and here the Saxons were led by Alfred, the greatest king in England's early history, who reigned from about 870 to 900. Under his leadership the Danes were defeated, and in a treaty they promised not to attack Wessex but to occupy the lands they had conquered in north-eastern England. This region was called Danelaw. So a widespread Danish conquest was delayed.

Of all the rulers of England, Alfred is the only one to be called 'the Great', and he certainly deserved the title. Alfred realized that the Danes could spread terror because they were able to



JUSTICE IN EARLY BRITAIN



strike anywhere from the sea. He had London fortified. Forts were built along the coast and manned by paid troops who were to be on the watch for attacks. If the enemy came in large numbers, then the king called on his nobles or thanes who with their followers formed a standing army of professional soldiers. In times of great peril the forces could be increased by calling out the men who tilled the land. Alfred started a navy in which the ships were larger and carried more men than the Danish vessels. The Saxon navy defeated the Danes and drove them away.

Alfred was much more than a warrior, however. He started a school at his court, encouraged monasteries to open schools, and gave help to the building of new monasteries and churches. He gathered learned men about him and had books translated from Latin into English. Latin was the language of learning of the time and was used in the Church services, but it could not arouse in people a pride in and a love for their country. For that, the king had a history of all England started called the 'Anglo-Saxon Chronicle', which was mainly a story of the fight with the Northmen. Skilled craftsmen were brought from Europe to teach the English people how to do and make things better. Thus Alfred gave good government and made wise laws. Under such rule Angles, Saxons and Danes began slowly to merge together.

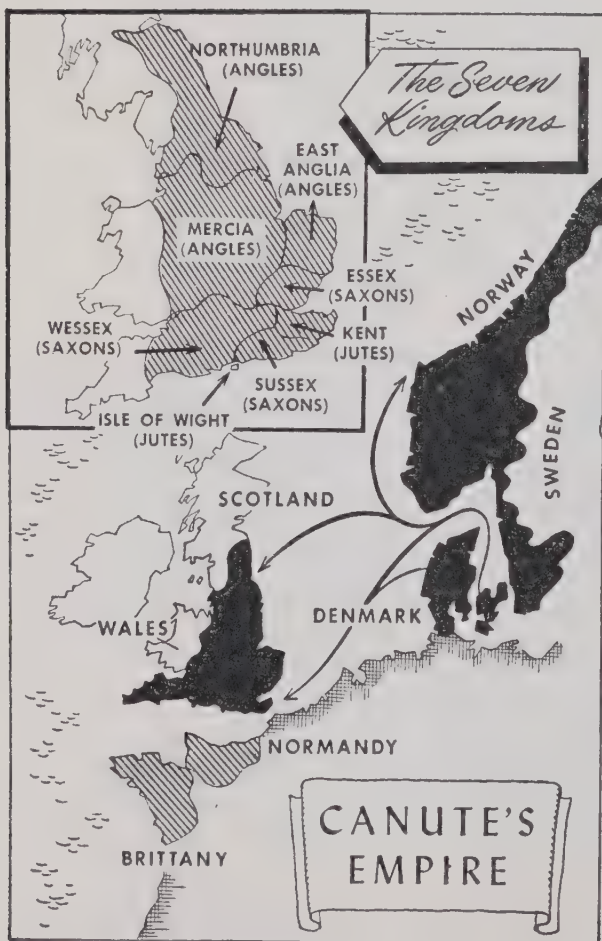
New Danish attacks went on, however, for years after Alfred's

time, and even got worse. One English king tried to buy off the invaders by paying them large sums of money called 'Danegeld' but they only returned for more, killing, robbing and plundering, and people fled from them in terror. At last in 1013 when the Danish king Swein arrived with a host of followers the terrified English accepted him as their king. Death came soon to this pagan and after fierce battles his son Canute came to the throne.

The English people feared a reign of blood and terror, but Canute turned out to be much better than expected. His first act was to collect a vast sum of money by heavy taxation. He then paid off the greater part of his army and navy which returned to Denmark. He held a gathering of leading Englishmen and promised to rule according to the ancient laws of the land. He proved to be as good as his word because he appointed Englishmen as his officials, allowed the landowners to keep their land, and won the loyalty of the common people by keeping peace. He became a Christian and gave many gifts to the Church. Legend tells us that his flattering courtiers once got him to show his power by

setting his throne on the seashore and commanding the rising tide to stay back. The story of Canute's failure to keep back the waves, whether true or not, has become as familiar as a proverb. It is said that he would never wear his crown again but placed it above the high altar of Winchester Cathedral.

Under Canute England became for a time a part of a great maritime empire, including Denmark and Norway. His fleets controlled the seas, and wiped out piracy. London again became an important trading centre as more of England's people turned to ship building and making articles



for export and slowly the country lost the ugly scars of the wild Danish lootings.

The English people were not as fortunate in their kings after the death of Canute. His empire broke up and his sons fell into civil wars. Fortunately they did not live long, and on their deaths the Witan selected a descendant of Alfred the Great to be king. Edward the Confessor, as he came to be called, was a very religious man and one notable thing he did was to found Westminster Abbey. Unhappily, however, Edward when he died left no strong heir. Before he became king he had lived across the channel in Normandy. His mother was a Norman. William, the Duke of Normandy, was his close friend, and all this was to help soon to bring about the Norman Conquest of England.

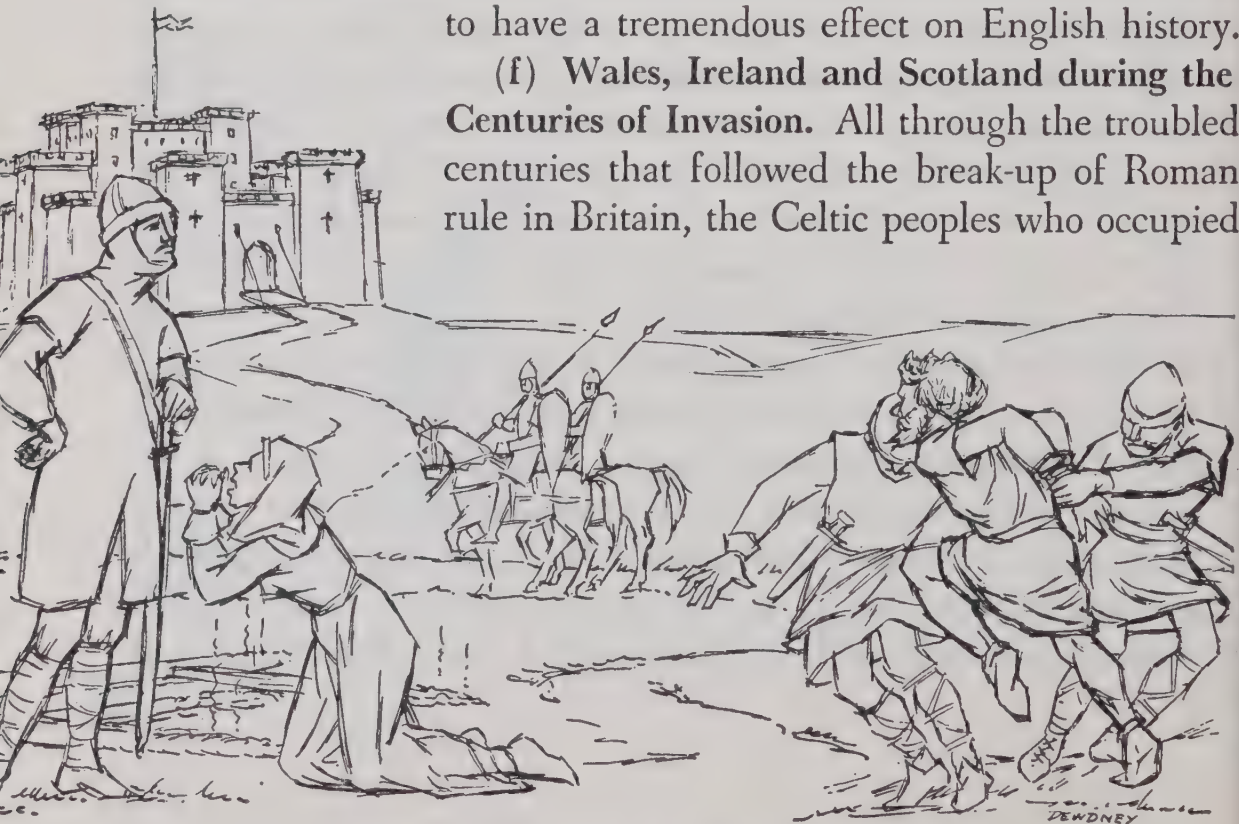
(e) **The Norman Conquest, 1066.** On the death of Edward, the Witan selected the greatest of the English earls, Harold Godwine, to be king, but William of Normandy immediately claimed the throne on the grounds that Edward had promised it to him and that Harold had made a vow to support him. The Witan, however, refused to consider such a claim, and William prepared to invade England. He promised his nobles and all who would help him rich rewards. Ships were built, soldiers assembled, supplies collected, and on September 28, 1066, a favourable wind landed William's forces on the shore of Kent. Unfortunately for Harold he had had to rush north to meet an invasion of Northmen. Defeating them he raced back, only to find William's army entrenched near Hastings on the coast south of London, and here a fight to the death took place. All day the battle swayed back and forth, but at the end Harold and the flower of his army lay dead. William marched slowly toward London, burning and laying waste the countryside, and on Christmas Day, 1066, in Westminster Abbey, William was crowned king. A new era had begun.

The English people soon learned what this conquest meant. The Tower, a great stone fortress which has become famous through the centuries, was begun in London to establish royal control. William promised to rule by 'the laws of King Edward', but it

was soon clear that he was to be master. Land was seized and given to his nobles and knights. Three quarters of the land of England changed hands in his reign. Rebellions he put down with an iron hand, and many fled for their lives into Wales and Scotland. The authority of the king was carried to even the smallest village and everywhere William's followers were in control. The transfer of land ruined many English landholders. Freeman and even thanes became peasants working the land that they had once owned. The demands of the new Norman masters for services and labour in return for the land became so severe that here and there, wild with misery and regret, Englishmen rose and killed the new lords. Such rebels were punished by death and the Norman lords demanded more of the survivors. Bitter hatreds developed. To protect themselves the Normans forced the peasants to help in the building of wooden towers and defence works. Later towers and castles were built of stone. From these strongholds armoured horsemen could control the countryside or plunder it at will. Thus England was conquered and held by a few thousand armoured knights.

Under this harsh Norman rule England was united, however, as it had never been since the time of the Romans, and this was to have a tremendous effect on English history.

(f) **Wales, Ireland and Scotland during the Centuries of Invasion.** All through the troubled centuries that followed the break-up of Roman rule in Britain, the Celtic peoples who occupied

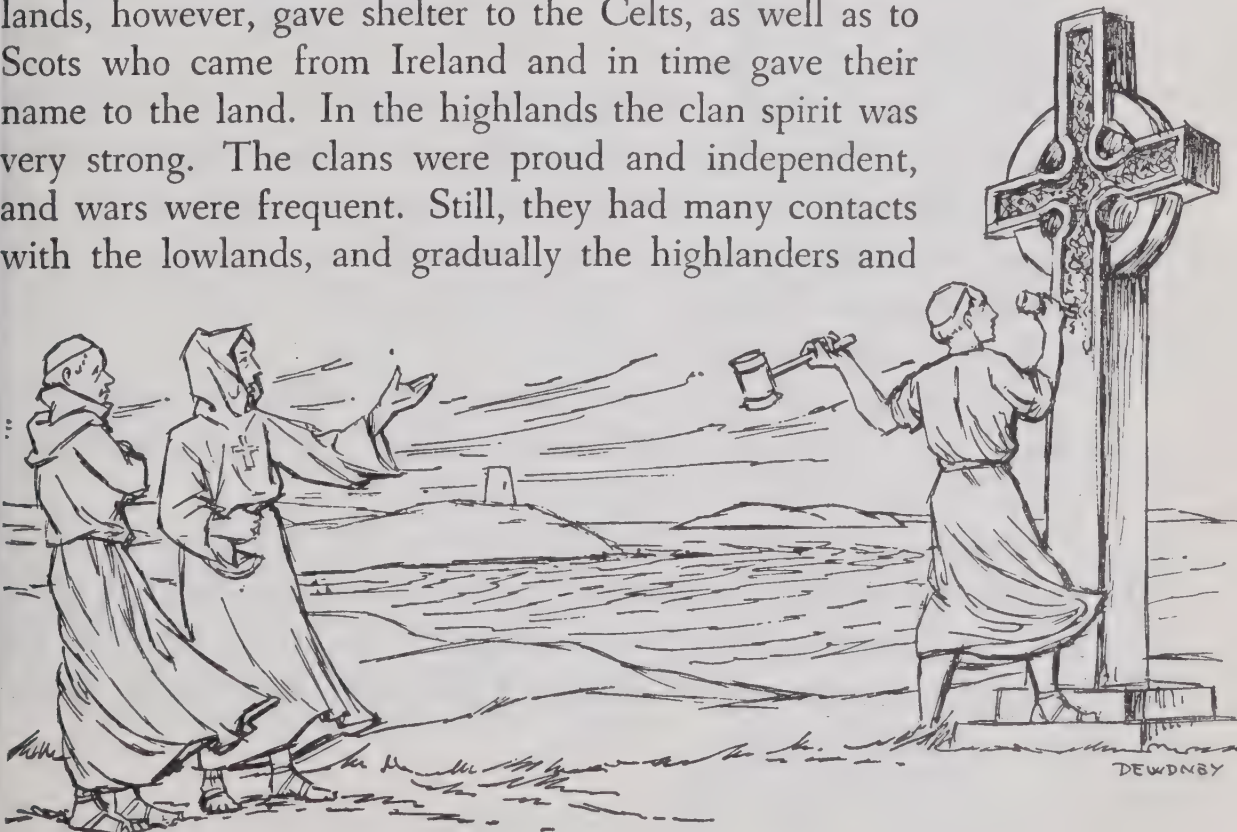


NORMAN RULE IN BRITAIN

Wales, Ireland, and Scotland continued to defend themselves against the Anglo-Saxon and Danish invaders. Geography helped them. The mountains and highlands of Wales and Scotland and the sea around Ireland gave some natural defences, so that the invaders were never able to triumph as they did in England, and this is one of the reasons why the Welsh and Irish and Scottish peoples are different from the English to the present day. They kept their Celtic languages and tribal customs. It is true that quarrels and feuds kept the tribes or clans from uniting, and this was a disadvantage. Nevertheless, they were able to hold back the Norse invaders as they had done earlier with the Romans.

In Wales the border struggles against the Anglo-Saxons lasted a very long time. This strengthened the tribe or clan organization, but it also helped to create a Welsh people. The Welsh were held together by more than war, however. Their language, their love of music and poetry were blended with their religion, and all these things helped to produce a Welsh pride and patriotism which is still strong.

In Scotland the Anglo-Saxon invaders were able to push the Celts out of the rich lowlands and occupy their lands. The highlands, however, gave shelter to the Celts, as well as to Scots who came from Ireland and in time gave their name to the land. In the highlands the clan spirit was very strong. The clans were proud and independent, and wars were frequent. Still, they had many contacts with the lowlands, and gradually the highlanders and



CHRISTIANITY IN IRELAND

lowlanders came to have much in common. In this mingling of Anglo-Saxons and Celts Scotland differed from both Wales and Ireland.

Ireland also had a difference, for unlike Wales and Scotland it was not touched by the invasions until the coming of the Danes, who then, however, did terrible destruction. Ireland like the others was divided among clans, each governed by its own chief, and each proud and independent. The most interesting and important thing about Ireland in this period is the way in which Christianity was brought in and the influence it had there.

Christianity was first brought into the British Isles in Roman times, but we have already seen how it died out in England after the Romans left and had to be brought back by St. Augustine. In Wales, however, it did not die out entirely. Christians fled from Roman Britain into Wales and slowly spread their teachings among the Welsh people. Ireland also got Christianity first from Roman Britain in the person of that very famous missionary, St. Patrick. Patrick came to Ireland early in the fifth century and was so successful that Ireland became a stronghold of Christian teachings and in turn began to send out missionaries. It was one of these, St. Columba, who in the sixth century first brought Christianity to Scotland.

The Irish Celtic church which Patrick founded had a remarkable growth, and became famous throughout Western Europe. Patrick brought Roman learning to Ireland, and while England was still pagan, the Irish Celtic church was developing artists, scholars, and missionaries. So from Ireland learning was later brought back to Europe to civilize the barbarian conquerors.

(g) **Lasting Effects of the Centuries of Migration and Settlement.** Has anything lasted from this far-off period of a thousand and more years ago? Let us glance back and see.

Doubtless the greatest contribution was the founding of Christianity, first in Roman Britain from where it spread to Wales, Ireland, and Scotland, and then in Anglo-Saxon Britain where it was brought by Augustine. Christianity and the Church were civiliz-

ing influences. Schools were founded and learning encouraged, and the benefits from these things have come down through history even to the Canada of our own day.

The Romans left some other marks also in England. Their roads were the only good highways for centuries, and traces of them can still be seen. These roads helped later to unite the various parts of the country, which was a very slow and difficult business. Roads helped trade and travel, and led to the starting of London as a trading centre. Other Roman influences continued long after the fall of the Empire. People heard of Roman life, learning, law, and order, and were encouraged to try to improve conditions.

From the Anglo-Saxons we also get some lasting contributions. Already we have seen how the Anglo-Saxons chose their king, and thought of him not only as a ruler but as the servant of the people. The king did not so much make the laws; rather he was expected to uphold the customs or laws of the people. The monarchy has lasted for over a thousand years since Anglo-Saxon times, and this is no doubt because the monarch is still thought of as the servant of the people and as the upholder of the laws. The Coronation ceremony, which makes this clear, still contains parts which have come down from Anglo-

NOTE: All pictograms should be read from top to bottom.





Saxon times. The British monarchy is probably the most ancient political institution in the world, and in modern times it has been extended in a remarkable way to the whole Commonwealth.

We have also noticed the Anglo-Saxon idea of local government which gave the local communities a share in governing themselves through their shire and hundred moots. These moots also

acted as courts, though their methods were very crude. In trial by ordeal, for example, the accused had to pass a test to prove innocence. A person charged with being a witch, for instance, when thrown into water was supposed to sink if innocent. If he or she floated, the water was supposed to be rejecting an evil spirit. Even ordeal was better than some of the older methods, which shows how long it has taken to build up our ideas of law and justice.

The greatest result of the centuries of migration and settlement before 1066 was the moving and mixing of peoples out of which came the four main groups inhabiting the British Isles today: English, Welsh, Irish, and Scots. These groups had clearly emerged by the end of the Anglo-Saxon period, and were firmly established with their languages and customs in the parts of the British Isles where they still live. In the next thousand years down to our own day, the English language and law would spread and all sorts of other changes would take place, but the names and customs of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, would continue. So the Anglo-Saxon period in spite of all its strife and confusion laid some very strong and lasting foundations.

2. The Middle Ages

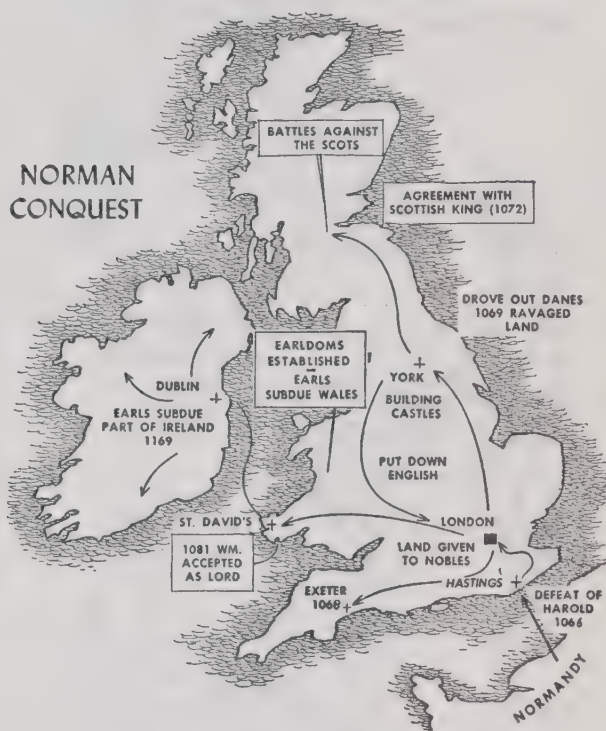
The term Middle Ages has come to be used for the period from the Norman Conquest to about 1500, the

reason being that these four centuries or so lie between the earlier centuries of migration and settlement and the later centuries leading up to our modern world. During this medieval period such great changes took place that it is not easy to give an idea of them. The rough, pioneer days of the Anglo-Saxon period faded into the background. Large areas, especially in southern England, were brought under cultivation. Sheep became important, and England became the greatest wool-growing and wool-exporting country in Western Europe. Towns became common and a real merchant class developed. Cathedrals were built, schools and universities started, and the land became dotted with those great stone castles which can be seen in many places in Britain to the present day, with their towers, drawbridges, moats, and dungeons.

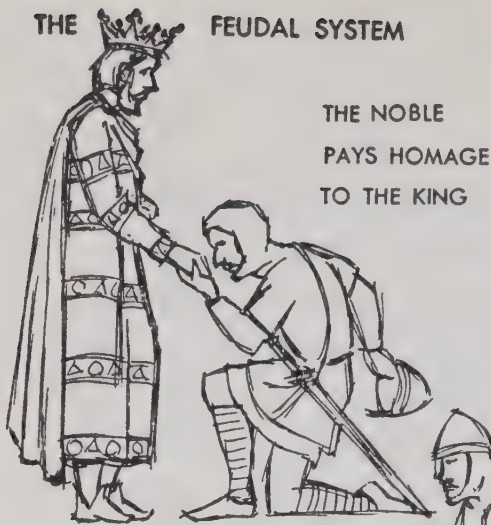
These castles give us an important suggestion about the Middle Ages, because during that time land was controlled by the king and great nobles in what was known as the feudal system, and this system was most important in government. The nobles with their castles and armoured knights were a power in the country.

In the following pages we shall see how this system failed to keep law and order, and so prepared the way by 1500 for a strong nation state with a king who could keep the nobles under his control.

(a) **Norman Rule.** Although the feudal system was appearing in England and other countries before the Norman Conquest, William the Conqueror organized and encouraged it in England in a very important way. Claiming that all land belonged to him as a result of the conquest, he granted large areas called fiefs to his chief followers. In return these great landholders, or vassals

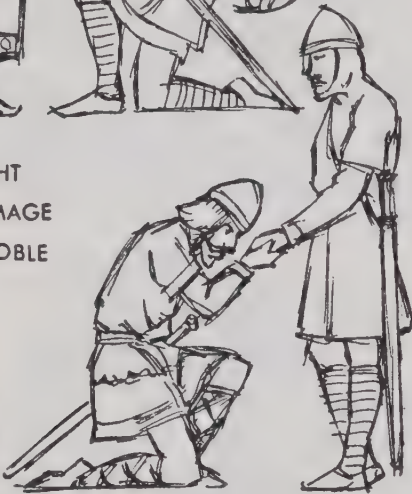


THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

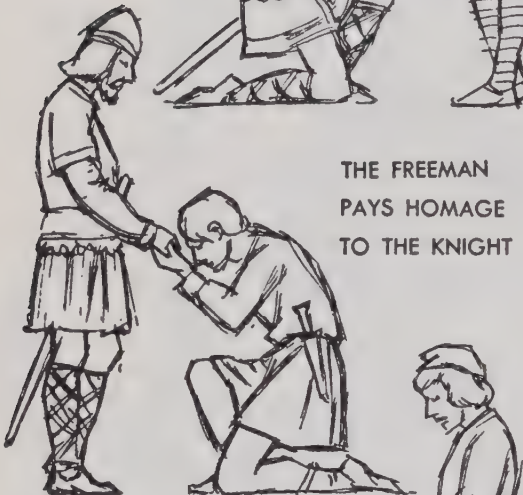


THE NOBLE
PAYS HOMAGE
TO THE KING

THE KNIGHT
PAYS HOMAGE
TO THE NOBLE



THE FREEMAN
PAYS HOMAGE
TO THE KNIGHT



THE SERF
TAKES
ORDERS
FROM
THE FREEMAN—



AND HAS
NO ONE
TO BOSS
BUT HIS DOG



as they were called, promised to give faithful service to their lord, the king, to provide troops for stated amounts of time if they were needed and to perform other duties. Then these great landholders became lords in turn by dividing their lands into smaller fiefs, and granting them to lesser nobles and knights on similar conditions. An amount of land large enough to support a nobleman and his family was usually called a manor. The manor lands were still further divided among tenants who worked on the soil. Some of them might be freemen, and some serfs, but in all cases they gave something in return for their land, such as labour, or military service, or a part of their crops. Thus all land in the kingdom was distributed, and every vassal from highest to lowest had his lord from whom he expected protection and to whom he owed some kind of duty like military service.

It is easy to see how this system in time became very complicated with lands being more and more divided and handed back and forth. The chief danger was, however, that the greatest nobles would become too powerful. A great noble with one or more strong castles and many armed knights might become strong enough to defy the king himself. William who saw this kind of thing happening on the continent was determined to prevent it in England,

and while he lived he was able to do so. He ruled with a rod of iron. In the shires, he appointed sheriffs who saw that the royal orders were obeyed and that the courts did their work. So the people began to look to the king for protection.

The most remarkable single act of William's reign was the making of the famous *Domesday Book*, which gave particulars of all the lands of England, showing who held them, how many tenants of each class they had, how much was tilled, and so forth. This was a kind of census which William prepared to help him govern. There is nothing like it for any other country of that time and it has been a mine of information ever since.

Though William was stern, the Norman feudalism which he established gave England order even after his death for half a century. War, however, broke out between rivals for the throne, and then feudalism brought great disorder. Nobles seized their chance to take more land, build castles, and fight private wars, plundering the countryside. After nearly twenty years of suffering from feudal abuses, the country was ready to welcome a strong ruler, and the warring groups agreed that Henry Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, should become king. He could trace his descent back to both William the Conqueror and King Alfred. In 1154 he was crowned as Henry II.

(b) **Henry II Establishes a Strong State.** Henry was one of the ablest kings that ever sat on the English throne, and he did a wonderful work in organizing his English kingdom in spite of the fact that he had great possessions also in France and had to spend his time going back and forth. He was a man of tireless energy. It is said he never sat down except at meals and in Council, and he travelled with his court everywhere in his scattered kingdom. He had an awful temper, and when he became aroused even the greatest nobles were afraid of him. But he was a good scholar, interested especially in the law, and it was here that he did his greatest work. No other king did more to lay the foundations of England's courts and legal system.

First he brought the nobles under control, ordering all castles built

without royal permission to be destroyed and all foreign soldiers brought to England without permission to be sent away. No less than three hundred and seventy-five castles were destroyed. He took back royal estates which had been seized and encouraged nobles to pay money instead of providing knights for his army. He was thus able to build up a royal army, and he increased his forces by calling out men who worked the land and requiring them to be properly armed according to their class. They were happy to fight for a king who could control the great nobles. Thus Henry built up a strong state.

His legal reforms were, however, his most lasting work, and here he did some things which have continued to our own day. One was to appoint well-educated men as royal judges who travelled throughout the country and held courts of assize (a word which is still used) in each district at least once a year. This reform cut down the power of the nobles in their feudal courts where the innocent were often punished and the guilty let go if the lord desired. Before Henry died the King's courts were respected throughout the land.

A second thing he did was to develop the jury, though it was not used in his day to try cases as it does now. When the judges went around the country, Henry required that juries should be formed in places where courts were held to make lists of persons who ought to be tried. Persons thus presented were tried by the old methods of ordeal. These 'juries of presentment' or 'grand' juries, as they have been called, were also used to discover facts about claims to land. In the next century, soon after Henry's death, ordeal was abolished and 'petty' juries of twelve men were used to try cases. Henry's reforms, however, gave the jury its real start, and it was particularly important because it brought knights and freemen into the courts to help in keeping order. Henry trusted the people and gained their co-operation, and the courts were thus one of the beginnings of self-government.

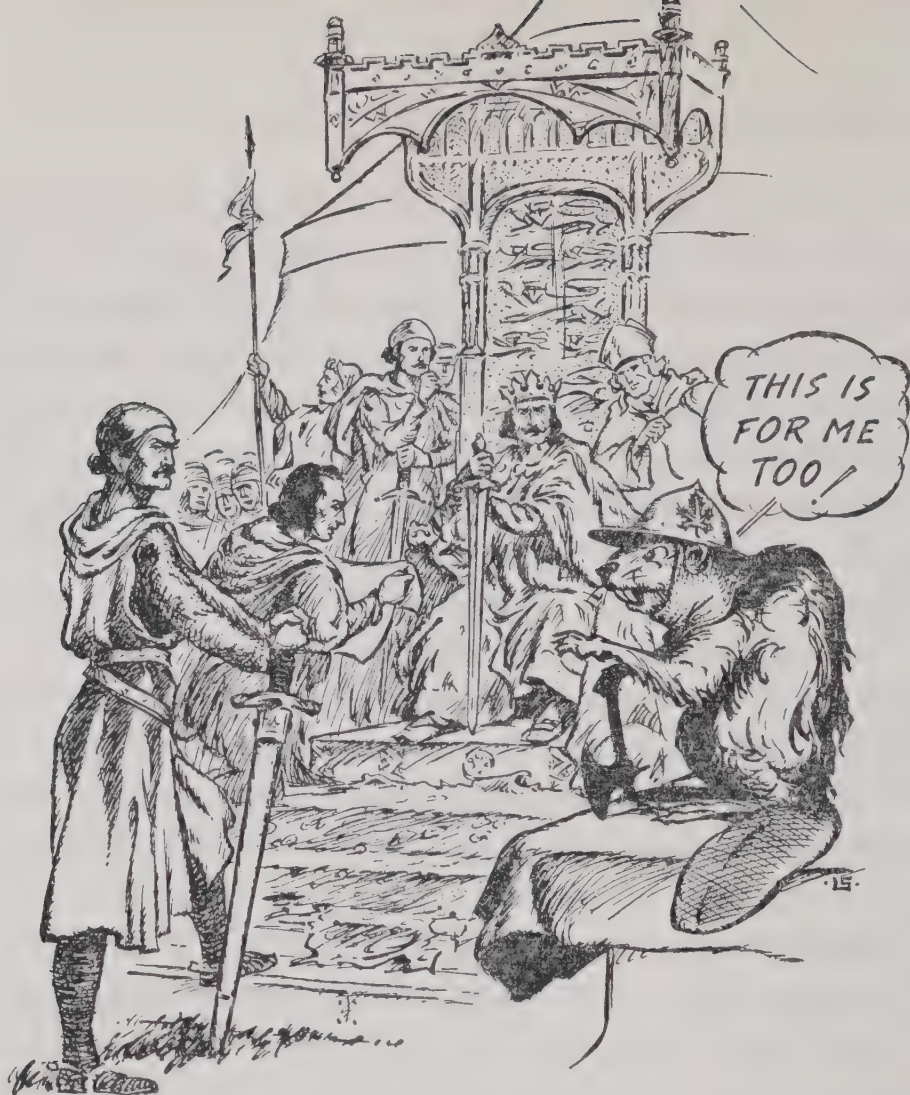
Henry was also the founder of the 'Common Law', so called because it was common throughout the kingdom. It is still an

important part not only of the law of England but of all English-speaking countries. The Common Law grew because the judges kept a careful record of all the cases that they heard and the decisions that they made, and they gave the same punishments for the same kinds of crime. So a great body of practices and ideas gradually developed which was understood by all the judges and lawyers, and this Common Law has continued, though with many changes and additions, to our own day. The laws of Parliament, which may change the Common Law, are called 'statute' law and are of course written down.

Not all of Henry's acts were as wise as his legal reforms, but for these the English people certainly owe him a debt of gratitude. They became proud of the king's courts and judges, and of the law whose ideal at least was to give justice to the weak and poor as well as to the rich and strong.

(c) **Magna Carta.** If you had been living in England over seven hundred years ago you might have seen a most remarkable event—King John surrounded by his angry nobles and forced to place his great seal on what has become one of the most famous documents in history, Magna Carta, or, the Great Charter. This was on June 12, 1215 near Windsor Castle at a meadow on the Thames called Runnymede. What was the Great Charter? Why did John have to sign it, and why has it become so famous? This was only twenty-six years after the death of Henry II who did so much to bring law and order to England.

Henry's two sons who succeeded him were, unfortunately, very poor kings. The first was the famous Richard the Lion Heart who was not a bad man, but who went away for several years on a crusade to the Holy Land. He was captured and held for ransom on his way back, and so his kingdom was neglected. The second, John, is even more famous because he was the worst king England ever had. He oppressed nobles and common people alike, levied unjust taxes, quarrelled with everyone including the Pope and the Church, and allowed the country to fall into lawlessness and crime. It was, for instance, about this time that Robin Hood



and his merry men who helped the oppressed are supposed to have lived in Sherwood Forest.

Finally, the chief nobles and churchmen agreed that John's misdeeds must end, and they drew up a great list or charter—sixty-three clauses altogether, of rights not only of nobles and clergy but of freemen. At first John refused to accept it, but the nobles collected forces, and marched on London where they were welcomed by the people. The King saw that he had to yield, and at Runnymede he ordered the royal seal to be put on the Great Charter.

Magna Carta did not contain anything new. It was almost entirely about the feudal rights of the nobles and clergy which had been developed in the land and had been respected by wise kings. One famous clause, number 39, protected freemen: "No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned or dispossessed or outlawed or banished or in any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him

nor send upon him, except by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." Fine as this was it did not protect those among the common people who were serfs.

Why then did Magna Carta become so important? Chiefly because it did say that the law of the land and not the king should be supreme. The king could not do anything he pleased, he was under the law, he had no right to imprison or punish or oppress unjustly. And so in later times when the king or other powerful men abused their power, people recalled Magna Carta. Thus it became a keystone of English liberty and has remained so to the present day—for all the Commonwealth as well as Britain.

John, of course, broke his word. He gathered troops and civil war seemed certain. But fortunately at that moment he died, and the Great Charter remained secure for the time being at least.

(d) **The Beginnings of Parliament.** One of the most important things that happened during the Middle Ages was the beginning of Parliament. This came at first largely because of attempts to keep order and have Magna Carta obeyed. Since Anglo-Saxon times there had been a Great Council of the chief nobles. In the years following John's death this Council became more important and began to call its meetings 'Parliaments' or discussions. While the Great Council could not control the king, it could express its opinion, and so it was consulted especially about taxes and raising forces in time of war. Soon, to these meetings not only great nobles but lesser nobles were invited, and in the meeting of 1225 even knights of the shire elected in the shire courts were invited, since they would have to pay part of the money that was wanted. Thus 'Parliament' was quietly beginning, though no one realized what it was going to grow into in later times.

In 1265 a famous meeting took place. Henry III, the son of John, was a weak king and his poor rule led to a rebellion under a remarkable Frenchman, Simon de Montfort, who had become an English earl. The king was defeated, and Montfort then held a 'Parliament' to which he called not only nobles, clergy and knights of the shire, but representatives of towns. The royal forces rallied,

however, and Montfort was killed, so that this 'Parliament' of 1265 came to nothing.

Although these 'Parliaments' were still far from our modern Parliament, they were too valuable to be dropped and the very next king, Edward I, made such use of them that he has been called the real founder of the English Parliament. Edward was certainly one of the greatest kings who ever ruled in England, and he organized English laws as no one had done before him. It was in doing this that he made use of Parliament, because he saw that through it he could get money and help from the various classes of people in the kingdom better than in any other way. He therefore had lawyers prepare laws for approval by Parliament, and these were known as 'Statutes'. Edward also issued many laws himself, and had no intention of letting Parliament get out of his control. Still, by using Parliament to represent the whole nation he did increase its importance, and this was something new. He used it especially for levying those taxes which were paid directly by the people, and the practice soon grew that 'direct' taxes were not to be levied unless Parliament consented.

The attendance at Edward's Parliaments varied a great deal because he could invite whom he pleased, but in 1295 he summoned what has come to be known as the 'Model Parliament'. To it were called nobles, churchmen, knights from shires, and representatives from towns. Unlike Simon de Montfort's this was the first such Parliament called together by an English king, and it became a pattern for the future, even though the model was not always followed exactly.

Meetings of Parliament provided opportunities for people to complain of unfair treatment by presenting petitions to the king, and petition became the basis of many laws passed by Parliament. By the close of Edward's reign it was recognized that all English freemen had certain rights, and that these could be protected by such things as jury trial, Magna Carta and Parliament. The feudal controls were breaking



EDWARD I

down and the unwise use of power by a king was being limited by Parliament.

(e) **The Hundred Years' War.** A long war with France further increased the power of Parliament. From the Norman Conquest English kings had had possessions in France, and when Edward III laid claim to the throne of France, there started what is known as the Hundred Years' War, though it was really a series of wars fought at different times from 1337 to 1453. In its early years Edward was given loyal support, Parliament voted taxes to pay for the war and demanded explanations from the King's ministers who failed to carry it on with success.

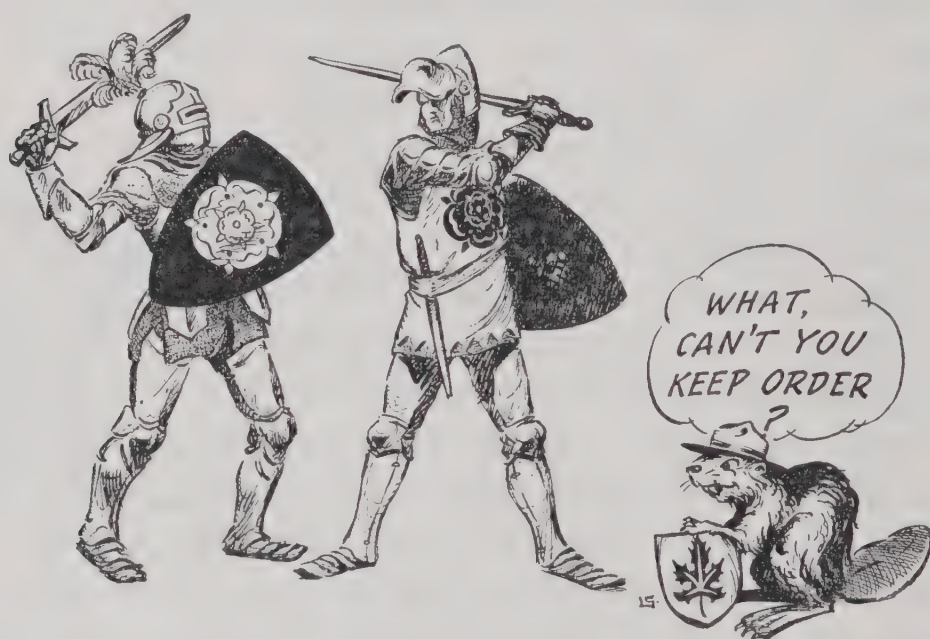
English forces, although outnumbered, defeated the best of French knighthood. The English had better leadership and their men excelled in the use of the longbow, which was a wonderful weapon. A good archer could send the yard-long arrow 240 yards or at shorter range drive it crashing through a knight's plate armour. Numerous battles were fought, and the victorious English plundered the countryside and collected much booty. In spite of some reverses, it appeared by the early part of the fifteenth century as if England would rule France. But the French people, though suffering, were beginning to develop a national spirit, and in 1428 when the English were besieging Orleans, there appeared a young peasant girl, Joan of Arc, who has been called one of the miracles of history. Joan claimed that she had been divinely instructed to lead her countrymen against the English invaders. So inspired were the French that under her leadership they won victory after victory over the English. Even after she was burned as a witch, the French continued to drive the English back until by 1453 England held only the port of Calais in France.

During this long war, Parliament was called frequently to



vote taxes to carry on the struggle. As the greater part of the taxes were paid by the townspeople and the knights, they came to have a more important position in Parliament, and met by themselves, in what became known as the House of Commons. The nobles and bishops formed the House of Lords, and had considerable influence on the King due to the strength of their private armies and castles.

While 'the Hundred Years' War made Parliament more important, it also had unfortunate effects. The end of the war brought back many who had fought in France. Knights and

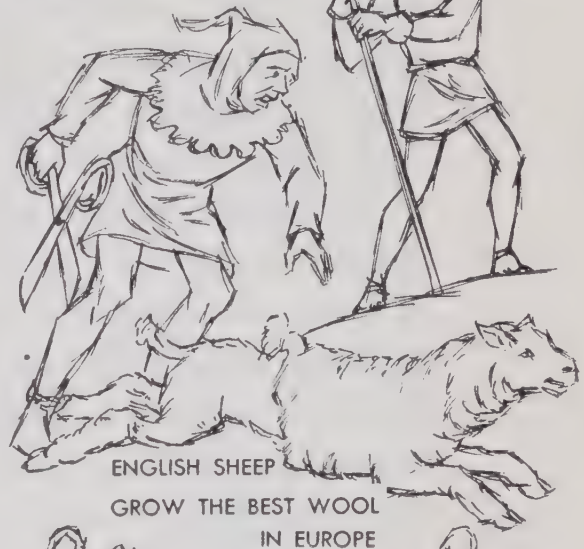


archers who had become accustomed to war and plunder found peaceful life in England to be dull and employment difficult to obtain. Restless, unemployed and sometimes starving, these veterans gladly became private warriors for nobles who wanted to extend their lands by force. Some nobles had as many as 3,000 men in service. It happened at this time that the kings were too weak, and soon these private wars became more and more serious. Finally, the Wars of the Roses started as two great families fought for wealth and power and the right to the throne. The nobles took sides and for thirty years this civil war went on. In a way it was a blessing in disguise because the great nobles so exhausted

EFFECTS OF THE MIDDLE AGES

their purses and ruined their estates, and so many were killed, that at last they were glad to have peace. Thus control of England by a feudal nobility collapsed and the common people looked for a strong king who could keep law and order. The last battle of the war was that of Bosworth Field in 1485. From it Henry Tudor emerged victorious and was proclaimed by the fighting men 'King of England'. As Henry VII he started the Tudor royal line which guided England for more than a century to glory and greatness.

(f) Lasting Effects of the Middle Ages. By the close of the Middle Ages England had become a nation very different from the divided country of Anglo-Saxon times. Many influences had helped in this direction, but one of the most important was the monarchy. The strong monarchy was looked to by the people as the force which could keep order, and order was necessary if the rights of the people were to be protected. The king's courts and the common law gave some protection against the privileges of the great feudal nobles. At times the kings were weak or unwise. Still there developed the idea that there was a law of the land which should be kept by everyone, even the king himself. Thus the rule of law



began to replace the rule of force that was so popular among the feudal nobles.

Another great contribution was the beginning of Parliament which grew slowly and at the end of the Middle Ages was still under the control of the king. Nevertheless, it had grown into two Houses, the House of Lords and the House of Commons, and had passed many statutes. Especially it was used by the king to levy 'direct' taxes, and this gave Parliament the chance of asking the king to remedy any grievances before the taxes were voted. We shall see how this 'power of the purse', as it was called, gave Parliament later an important weapon in dealing with the king.

Many other changes also took place in Medieval England. It was found that English sheep grew the best wool in Western Europe, and wool production increased enormously. Much of this raw wool was sent to Flanders where it was made into fine cloth. Trade also slowly developed in England as heavy-laden pack trains of animals carried bales of wool to coastal towns. Here the wool was exchanged for other articles that the country people needed, or sold for cash. The wool trade encouraged the building of ships, and gradually English ships in ever increasing numbers extended trade with the neighbouring lands across the Channel and the North Sea. Ships likewise carried on a steadily growing trade along the sea-coast of the British Isles. People began to realize again as in the time of Canute that England's prosperity came from sea trade.

Towns also grew, at first slowly. At the time of the *Domesday Book* there were eighty towns of which London was the largest. A town was usually surrounded by high walls like a feudal castle, and its inhabitants were required to pay fees and dues to the king or to a feudal noble on whose land it stood. Towns at first could not run their own affairs, but when the king or a noble needed money, the townspeople in many cases paid a sum in return for rights and privileges that were clearly written down in a

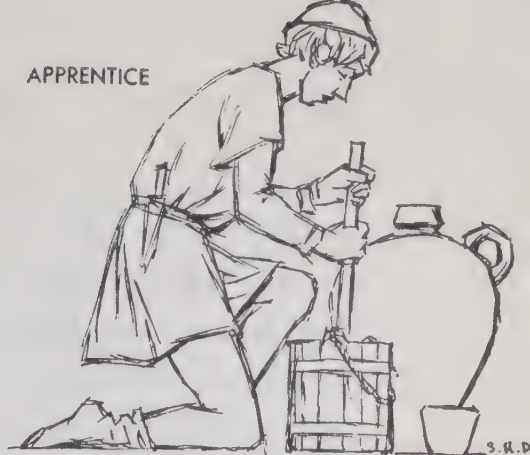
The Foundations of the British Nation

document called a charter. Such free towns made their own laws and elected their officials.

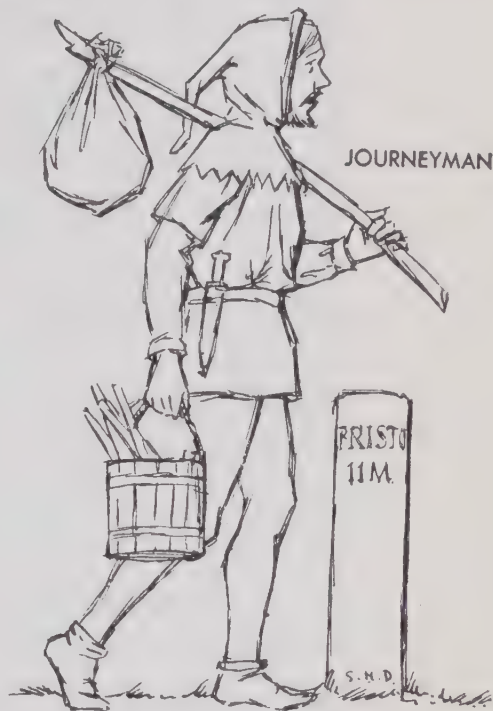
These medieval towns became organized in a very remarkable way. The craftsmen of the town formed organizations called guilds, one for each craft, such as tanners, smiths, etc. The guild set prices for goods, decided the rates of pay and checked on the quality of the articles made. The guild took care of its members who were ill or aged and made rules for the learning of the trade. A boy served as an apprentice for several years, then worked as a journeyman for wages, and after trying examinations, might become a master workman.

As trade increased, towns grew in size, in number, and in importance, and so a new group of people or class in society developed, which became known as the middle class, because it was between the nobles and the workers on the land. It was made up of merchants, and among them some of the great merchants began to organize companies to trade beyond their own town or in foreign lands. They very much resented the feudal system with its warring nobles, its lack of law and order and its bad roads. So they turned to the king, since they were willing to pay taxes in return for his keeping law and order. The importance of this group was recognized when representatives from towns were called to Parliament. And in time they took a leading part in the House of Commons.

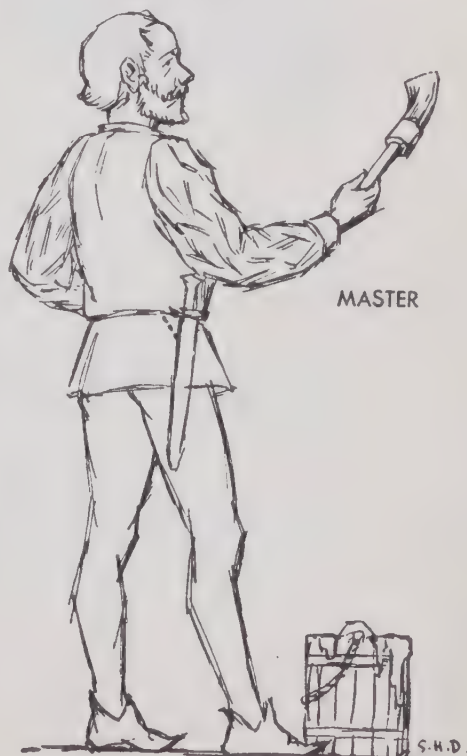
APPRENTICE



JOURNEYMAN



MASTER



Thus, the rise of towns and of trade brought about a decline of the feudal system. As townspeople became free from feudal control, others also wished to free themselves. More money came into use in the Middle Ages, and some serfs were able to save enough to buy their freedom. Others tried to escape by running away to the towns. On many estates the change from serfdom to hired labour went slowly forward. But the end of serfdom was hastened by a terrible plague, the Black Death, which struck three times and swept off no less than one-third to one-half of the whole population. Everything was upset. Wages rose, and landlords tried to keep their labourers down. Peasants revolted and were cruelly suppressed. The old conditions could not last, however, and in time labourers working for wages and farmers renting land took the place of serfs. The feudal system also declined because of changes in warfare. The king was able to pay a standing army and was not at the mercy of the nobles and knights. The use of the longbow, pikes, and gunpowder made foot soldiers the equals of mounted knights. War was no longer a sole right of the upper classes; an army of common men could give a strong king the support he needed. Feudalism had served its purpose in England, and was on the way out.

By the close of the Middle Ages also the English people were developing a love for their country and a patriotic pride which before the end of the sixteenth century was to show itself in many striking ways.

Learn by Doing

1. Dramatize the landing of St. Augustine in Kent as he brought Christianity to the English people. (1, c)
2. Conduct an imaginary interview with King Alfred. Have him discuss his plans for improving England. (1, d)
3. A class group imagines they are members of an English family. Discuss the changes and hardships brought about by the Norman invasion. (1, e)
4. Committees list some of the contributions made to England by the (1) Celts, (2) Romans, (3) Anglo-Saxons, (4) Normans. (1, a-e, 1, g)
5. Make a model of a Norman Castle. Outline the reason for building these castles.
6. Divide the class into two groups. One group dramatizes briefly the function of the jury system as it is used today; the other, dramatizes the use of the jury at the time of Henry II. (2, b)
7. Interview a lawyer to find out what is meant by the 'Common Law' and the way in which it still influences justice. (2, b)
8. Dramatize the scene where King John was forced to sign the Magna Carta. (2, c)
9. Prepare a short speech that Joan of Arc might have given to her soldiers. (2, e)
10. Make a mural showing the lasting contributions of the Middle Ages. (2, f)

Facts to Know

1. What contributions did the Celts make to early Britain? (1, a)
2. Offer proof as to whether the Roman invasion was an advantage or disadvantage to Britain's growth. (1, b)
3. What would be the disadvantages of the system of farming carried on by the early Anglo-Saxons? (1, c)
4. Why did the Normans invade England? (1, d and e)
5. Why did Ireland and Scotland remain comparatively free during the early invasions of England? (1, f)

6. Describe the way in which the feudal system provided an army for the king. (2, a)
7. In what ways was the feudal system of holding land an advantage and a disadvantage to a tenant? (2, a)
8. Prove that Henry II was a strong king. (2, b)
9. Why was the signing of the Magna Carta so important? In what way does it still affect us today? (2, c)
10. In what ways did the powers of the early parliaments differ from the powers of parliament today? (2, d)
11. In a few sentences state in what ways the parliaments called in 1225, 1265, and 1295 were different. (2, d)
12. In what way did the Hundred Years' War lead to the Wars of the Roses? (2, e)

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UNIT FOUR

HOW PARLIAMENT BECAME THE RULER IN BRITAIN, 1485 - 1714

1. *How the Tudors made Parliament Important, 1485 - 1603*
2. *How the Stuart Kings quarrelled with Parliament, 1603 - 1660*
3. *How Parliament became the Senior Partner in Britain's Government, 1660 - 1714*

In Canada today practically everyone accepts the idea that Parliament should rule the country, and feels that the really interesting questions about Parliament are: How does it carry on its business? Does it rule well? How could it be improved? And so on. Often in Canadian schools we have classes organizing themselves into a Mock Parliament with a Government party on one side of the House, and an Opposition party on the other; with a Prime Minister and his cabinet to bring in bills which will be criticized and voted on. Such a Mock Parliament may be opened by an address from the Throne, read by a Governor-General, and even if this Governor-General does not get a salute of guns he will probably carry off his duties very well.

Then a Speaker will be chosen to see that the rules of debate are followed and that every Member is addressed as 'the Honourable Member from . . . ' We hope that the Speaker will not have to call on the Sergeant at Arms to eject any unruly Member, though probably this would add to the fun.

Now all this is excellent, because in a democracy like Canada we cannot expect Parliament to govern well unless people try to understand how it carries on, and what are both its weak and strong points. But how, and when, did Parliament come to be accepted as ruler in the first place? Perhaps if we understand that we shall appreciate Parliament better, for it took over two hundred years to settle that question in Britain, and from Britain Canada took over the idea. So that part of British history is very much a part of Canadian history too.

1. How the Tudors made Parliament Important, 1485 - 1603

We have already seen how Parliament began in the Middle Ages; but how, in spite of its growth, it was unable to rule, so that England fell into civil war—the Wars of the Roses. There is an interesting story which shows how weak Parliament was at the end of that war. It is said that when Henry Tudor, the leader of the Lancastrians, won the Battle of Bosworth in 1485, he found the crown in a hedge and picking it up placed it on his own head. Whether true or not, this story certainly shows what could have happened at that time, for Henry had won the war, and with a victorious army behind him he was determined to make himself king no matter what others might say.

When Henry became Henry VII, however,

NOTE: The man in the picture is the 'Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod'. Find out the meaning of the little ceremony which he performs at the opening of Parliament.



He did not do away with Parliament. Instead he used it, since he found that it was a valuable help in governing the country. Parliament thus became a partner of the monarchy, and this is why, instead of dying out, it grew in importance during the next hundred years of Tudor rule.

Henry VII, it is true, did not use Parliament very much. With the Wars of the Roses just ended, England needed a strong government more than anything else and Henry was determined to provide it. He ordered the great nobles to break up their private armies and to destroy many of their great castles. Gunpowder was coming in, and the new artillery soon made it easier to deal with unruly nobles and their stone forts. To improve law and order Henry needed strong forces rather than more laws. Nevertheless, he did use Parliament in various ways which showed that he believed its support was important. For example, he had Parliament declare him king according to the old custom and so made it appear that he was not seizing the crown but that the nation was giving its consent. He also had Parliament set up a special court to deal with unruly nobles who were too powerful for the ordinary courts. This was the famous Court of the Star Chamber, so called because it met in a room of that name. Henry could certainly have set up this court himself, but he wanted to show that he had Parliament behind him in making even the most powerful nobles obey the law. So the courts throughout the land were strengthened, and slowly the lawlessness of the Wars of the Roses was ended.

(a) Parliament and the Great Tudors. Although Henry VII used Parliament, it really rose to importance in the reigns of his two greatest Tudor successors, Henry VIII and Elizabeth I. Henry reigned for thirty-eight years, from 1509 to 1547, and Elizabeth for forty-five years, from 1558 to 1603, a remarkable record of 83 years with only eleven years in between. They were two of the strongest monarchs England ever had, and both of them, like Henry VII, found Parliament useful. In fact they made a great deal more use of it than he had done. The result was that Parliament grew in im-

portance and came more and more to represent the consent of the nation.

Henry VIII's great use of Parliament was in ending the control of the Pope over the Church in England. Up to this time for a thousand years there had been only one Church, the Roman Catholic, in England and Western Europe. Early in the sixteenth century, however, a great religious change began, which has come to be known as the Reformation, and which resulted in the Church of England and other Protestant churches breaking away from the Church of Rome. The Reformation started on the Continent, in Germany, and we shall see later in Unit Seven how these Protestant teachings affected the British Isles. But here it is only necessary to show what Henry VIII did about them, and why he used Parliament to get what he wanted.

Henry was opposed to the extreme Protestant ideas, and it is unlikely that he would have allowed the Reformation to get very far in his reign had he not fallen into a bitter quarrel with the Pope. Henry was anxious to have a son to become the next king, but his sons had died as infants. He wished to get a divorce and marry again, and when the Pope finally refused to grant the divorce Henry determined that he would break the connection with Rome. To do this he turned to Parliament. In 1534 the Act of Supremacy was passed declaring Henry the head of the Church, and so the Church in England became a national church. This was only one of several important acts passed in the later years of Henry's reign. Another ordered that monasteries be destroyed, and their lands and wealth taken away because they were said to be no longer fulfilling their duties. Changes were also made in religious worship. Services and prayers were to be conducted in English, and an English translation of the Bible was ordered to be placed in every parish church.

In making such sweeping changes Henry aroused both support and opposition. For example, rebellions broke out in the north of England, while at the same time there were many who supported the king and felt that changes and reforms were needed.

How Parliament Became Ruler

Henry could probably have carried through these changes without Parliament, but it is easy to see why he preferred Parliament's help as this seemed to give the consent of the nation.

Elizabeth also relied on Parliament because she wanted to unite the nation behind her, and her story is indeed a remarkable one. When she came to the throne she was a young woman of only twenty-five and England was torn with divisions and bitterness. Her sister, Mary, who had been reigning for five years before her, was a devout Roman Catholic, and during that time the connection with the Pope had been restored. Mary had also married Philip, the king of Spain, and both France and Spain were watching each other and watching England, each of them hoping that it could draw England and Elizabeth into its control.

With her country divided and faced by powerful enemies, Elizabeth had a most difficult and perilous task. Few could have imagined that this lonely young woman, surrounded by plots and suspicions, would turn out to be perhaps the most remarkable sovereign in England's long history, but so it proved to be. We are told that she could fly into violent rages and box the ears of her advisers, but she could be patient and cautious and speak honeyed words when it served her purpose. Above all, she won the love of her people, because they knew, even when they did not all agree with her, that she wanted nothing so much as their safety and welfare. Though she selected wise advisers, she ruled them and Parliament with an iron will. But she knew when to give in, and near the end of her reign her people knew that she spoke truly when she said: "This I count the glory of my crown that I have ruled with your loves . . . I was never so much enticed with the authority of a queen as delighted that God had made me his instrument . . . to defend this kingdom from peril, dishonour, tyranny and oppression."



WYCLIFFE

At the beginning of her reign she was determined to unite her people as much as possible. She had Parliament pass Acts to restore the Church of England, and everyone was required to attend church, although she did not try to control their private opinions. By these Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, as they were called, Elizabeth succeeded in ending the most serious religious strife, although not everyone was satisfied.

Enough has been said to show how much the Tudor monarchs used Parliament in settling religious questions, but acts were also passed on many other matters too numerous to mention. Early in Elizabeth's reign, for example, a Statute of Artificers was passed to regulate conditions of employment in all industries and requiring among other things that all craftsmen had to have seven years' apprenticeship to learn their trade. Even more famous were the Poor Laws of Elizabeth's reign and especially the last of them, the great Poor Law of 1601 which continued for over two centuries, and which required each local community to look after its poor and unemployed people. The closing of the monasteries which had given poor relief, and the many changes during Tudor times increased the miseries of the poor. Beggars took to the roads, and were driven from place to place because no one wished to look after them. The Poor Laws were passed to remedy such conditions. People in need, including orphan children, were to be given help paid for by local taxes. Those who could work were to be given work, while the able-bodied who would not work were to be punished. Such was the beginning of what may be called social services in England. That is, the state recognized a duty to do something for its unfortunate citizens.

Through such Acts as these, Parliament was coming more and more to deal with all the important questions facing the country, and its power was growing in spite of the fact that it was still under royal control.

As well as gaining more power, Parliament changed in other ways

during Tudor times. For example, The House of Commons grew in importance. Some of the monarch's advisers sat in that House, and brought with them a knowledge of affairs of state and problems of government. They gave the members a training in the making of laws and helped to develop the tradition that the House of Commons was the great law-making body. Many rights of a modern Parliament were also becoming established in this Tudor period. Henry VIII allowed considerable freedom of debate, and raised no serious objections to having changes made in proposed laws so long as the king's will was carried out. Members were also assured of freedom from arrest while Parliament was in session, and this was a great protection to them.

In Elizabeth's later years the House of Commons began on several occasions to show more independence than the Queen liked, and she insisted that on the most important questions such as religion and foreign affairs Parliament had no right to interfere unless the Queen wished. Indeed, there were signs that if the monarch had not been so wise and beloved, there might have been clashes with Parliament, and this is what happened after Elizabeth's death, as we shall see. While she lived, however, monarchy and Parliament worked well together. Parliament was summoned to consider national problems, and people began to take greater interest in elections. Thus under the Tudors Parliament received a training for governing the nation which was to be of the greatest value in later times.

(b) How Local Government Helped the Rise of Parliament.

Parliament would not have become important if its laws had not been enforced. One of the chief ways in which this was done by the Tudors began under Henry VII. Henry wanted someone in each local community on whom he could rely to carry out the king's orders and to see that the local courts enforced the laws of Parliament. He found this person in the Justice of the Peace. The office of Justice of the Peace was not new, but Henry VII made it important by putting the king's power behind it, and the Justices did so many things that they have been called the



A JUSTICE OF THE PEACE AT WORK

Tudor men-of-all-work. They saw that roads, bridges and jails were kept up, they licensed taverns, and acted as magistrates in settling small disputes. Larger cases they kept for courts presided over by the king's judges, just as magistrates' courts do today, and they reported any discontent or trouble to the king's judges. They were very important in carrying out the Poor Laws. In fact they were given the chief responsibility in this.

The Justices of the Peace were usually not great nobles, but smaller landowners, knights and country gentlemen or squires. They received training in the art of government, and were tremendously proud of being the king's representatives. Many of them also became Members of Parliament and so they helped to make Parliament important throughout the country.

(c) **Lasting Effects of the Tudor Age.** The growth of Parliament was certainly one of the most important effects of the Tudor Age, and it is the one we are dealing with specially in this unit. But we should not forget that there were many others, because the Tudor Age was a fruitful one in all sorts of ways. It was the age of some of England's most famous writers like Shakespeare, and the age too when England became Europe's strongest seapower and produced many of her most famous sailors, like Drake who sailed around the globe. In later units, these things are mentioned more fully.

How Parliament Became Ruler

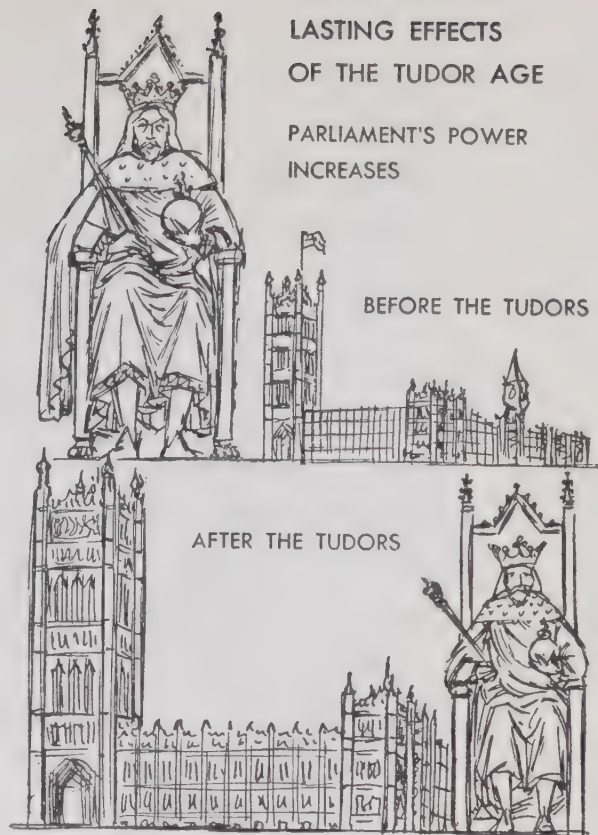
Here, however, we should notice one other lasting effect and that is the progress which was made in uniting the British Isles. The Tudor monarchs did a good deal in this direction, but it was Parliament which finally came to govern this united kingdom. So the growth of Parliament and the union of the British Isles were closely linked together.

Union with Wales was the first to take place. For over two centuries, Wales had been governed by English kings, but the countries had never been united and often there had been much bitterness between them. Henry VII came from a Welsh family. It is not surprising, therefore, that he wanted a union and he had the advantage of being regarded by the Welsh as a fellow countryman. He started to join the government of England and Wales, and Henry VIII completed the task. Wales was divided into counties, and Justices of the Peace were appointed to enforce the laws. A special Council of Wales was set up to keep order, and Wales was given the right to send members to Parliament, which she has continued to do ever since.

Union with Scotland did not go so far in the Tudor period, but the first steps were taken which were to bring union later. Henry VII felt

LASTING EFFECTS
OF THE TUDOR AGE

PARLIAMENT'S POWER
INCREASES



PARTIAL UNION OF ENGLAND & SCOTLAND



that Scotland was a danger spot in England's defences because the Scots were very friendly with France. He therefore tried to get on better terms with Scotland by arranging for his daughter to marry James IV of Scotland. This did not, however, by any means break the friendship between France and Scotland. In fact, the grand-daughter of James, the famous Mary Queen of Scots, was later sent to France at an early age to marry the French king, who died soon after. This was only the beginning of the troubles of this tragic and beautiful queen. She was always the centre of plots, and unfortunately she was not as wise as she was beautiful. When Scotland rose in rebellion against her, she fled to England. For almost twenty years she was a prisoner of Elizabeth, and finally was beheaded.

When Elizabeth died in 1603, however, Mary's son was the nearest heir to the English throne, because there were no Tudor heirs. He was the great-grandson of Henry VII's daughter, who had married the Scottish king a century before. So Henry's plan had an important result, even if it was a long time in coming. In 1603, Mary's son was already king of Scotland, and now he also became James I of England. He was the first of England's Stuart kings. Scotland and England thus had the same king, but not until another century, as we shall see, were they united into one kingdom with one Parliament. The union of 1603 was, however, an important step toward the later complete union.

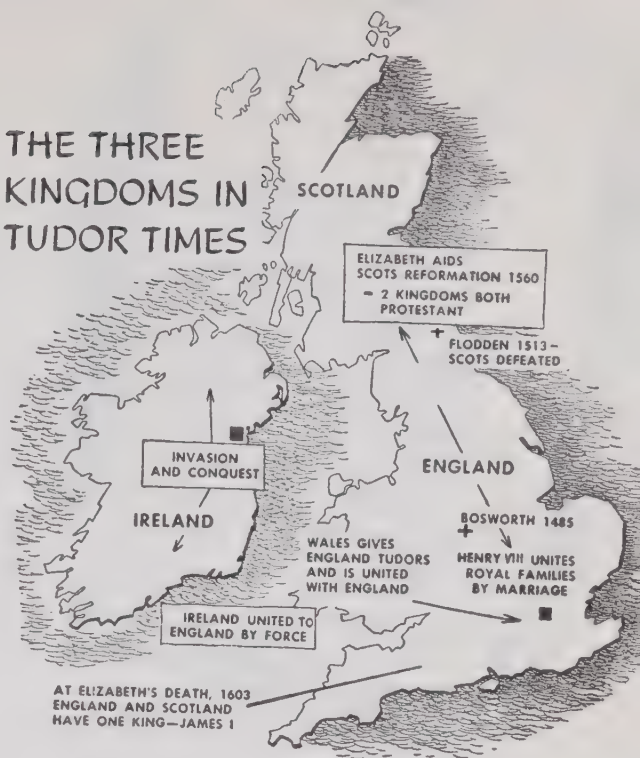


Tudor attempts to bring Ireland into union with England were unfortunately tragic rather than happy. Henry VIII tried to bring the Irish under more royal control, but the changes which he made, such as closing the monasteries, only aroused bitterness and began a long and unhappy story. Elizabeth also tried to force on the Irish, who were loyal Roman Catholics, the English Prayer Book and

How Parliament Became Ruler

services. Throughout the whole of Elizabeth's reign trouble continued in Ireland. The danger from Spain made things worse, because Elizabeth felt that Ireland would look to Spain, England's deadly enemy, for assistance. Just at the end of Elizabeth's reign the Spanish did, in fact, land a force in Ireland. It was only defeated with great difficulty, and the Irish rebellion was put down with bitter fighting. So there was no true union with Ireland. Among the great accomplishments of the Tudor Age, Ireland stands out as an unhappy exception.

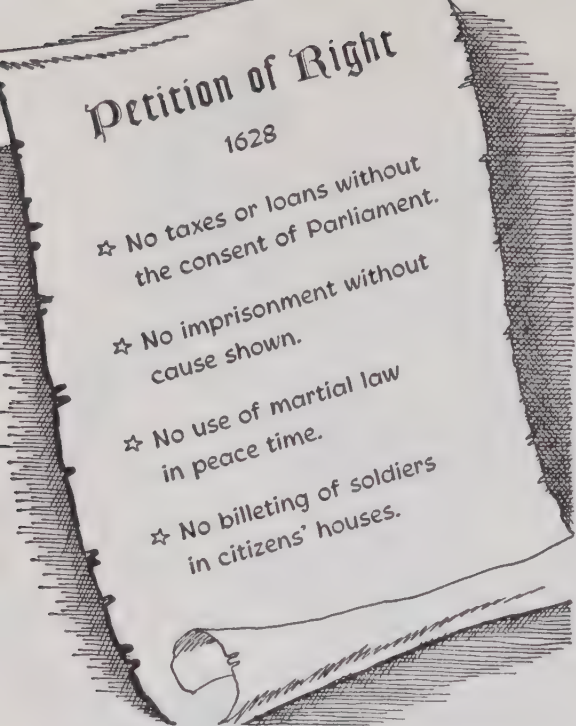
THE THREE KINGDOMS IN TUDOR TIMES



2. How the Stuart Kings quarrelled with Parliament, 1603 - 1660

(a) **The New Ideas of Divine Right.** When James came from Scotland in 1603 he hoped to rule well, but it was soon plain that he did not understand either Parliament or the English people. When he met his first Parliament he made claims which neither Henry VIII nor Elizabeth would ever have stated openly. He declared that he had been chosen by God to be king, and that he had complete control in those matters which he considered to be the most important in government. In these matters, he said, Parliament had no right to interfere.

These claims made up what came to be called 'the divine right of kings'. Such ideas were being put forward by kings in Europe who were ruling without Parliaments, and it is no wonder that James soon aroused alarm in England. Elizabeth also had claimed control over the most important matters of government, such as religion



and foreign policy, but she was more tactful in what she said and in the way in which she handled Parliament. James, who was full of arguments, was called 'the wisest fool' in Europe, and it was a very good name for him.

James soon ran into trouble on two matters, religion and taxation. In Elizabeth's reign a number of the clergy, who became known as Puritans, had objected to the strict use of the Prayer Book, and when a

group of them hopefully asked the new king to permit some changes of church rules, James angrily told them that they must obey or "he would harry them out of the land". Puritanism was growing, and James was afraid he would lose control of the Church. The House of Commons began to side with the Puritans, however, and so trouble began between James and Parliament.

The trouble soon spread to taxation. To keep control over the king, Parliament refused to grant him all the money he wanted. James then began to collect certain taxes without Parliament's consent, and Parliament claimed that this taxation was illegal. So the co-operation between the monarch and the House of Commons, which had been so important in Tudor times, began to break down.

All through his reign, James I had trouble with Parliament, but after his son, Charles I, came to the throne in 1625, things quickly got very much worse. Like his father Charles was sincere, but his actions were often unwise. For instance, he carried on a costly and mismanaged war with France, which caused taxes to go up. He had all his father's ideas about 'divine right', and when Parliament opposed him he began to levy taxes without its consent. People who refused to pay were imprisoned without trial and troops were billeted in private houses.

People were roused by such threats to their liberties, and when lack of money forced Charles to call Parliament in 1628, members of the House of Commons demanded that he agree to the famous Petition of Right which they drew up. It declared any tax or loan to the king without Parliament's consent to be illegal, and that imprisonment without showing cause was also illegal. Charles tried to avoid accepting it but he had to give in, and although many years passed before the Petition of Right was fully obeyed it was never forgotten. Like Magna Carta it has always been remembered as a great milestone in the struggle for British liberties.

(b) How King and Parliament Drifted into Civil War. Charles was now determined to rule without Parliament, and for eleven years he did so, raising money by illegal taxes and by fines levied by special courts. It must not be thought that everyone was against him. Great numbers of the people thought that the king's power must be upheld, and it took tremendous courage to stand up against the king. Sir John Eliot, one of the leaders in the Petition of Right, died in prison, and he was only one of the many who suffered because they defied the king.

Charles had two strong advisers, Archbishop Laud and Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford. They were able and sincere men but Charles might never have gone so far had it not been for them. During these years Strafford ruled with an iron hand in Ireland, and organized an army which many Englishmen feared might be brought to England. Laud was even more powerful. He ordered the clergy to support the king's claims of divine right, and he tried to drive all Puritans out of the church. The services of the Prayer Book were to be followed exactly, books and pamphlets were censored, and church courts were set up to enforce Laud's will. Thousands of Puritans fled to America rather than give in.

Scotland now came into the picture. Laud did not like the Presbyterians, whose ideas in many ways were like those of the Puritans, and he ordered that the Anglican church services should

be used in Scotland too. Nothing could have aroused more trouble. Scotland was loyal to the Stuart kings, but the Scottish Presbyterians were more loyal to their church. Riots broke out all over Scotland, and in fact no such united rising had ever been seen in the country. In St. Giles Cathedral in Edinburgh, the place is still pointed out where Jenny Geddes hurled her stool at the minister who began to read the new service.

This foolish and unnecessary policy in Scotland really did more than anything else to bring on the Civil War, because when Charles decided to put the Scots down by force they raised an army and crossed over into England in 1640. In desperation Charles had to call Parliament for the first time in eleven years, but it refused to help him unless he promised to stop his illegal practices. So he sent it home, and as it lasted only three weeks it is known as the 'Short Parliament'.

Charles now called Strafford back from Ireland, and tried every scheme he could think of to get out of his difficulty, but without success. Riots were already breaking out in London, and again, for the second time in a year, he had to call Parliament. This is also a famous one, for it was not finally and legally ended until twenty years later, and is called the 'Long Parliament'. Thus this one eventful year of 1640 saw the calling of both the Short and the Long Parliaments.

With a united Parliament and the Scots against him Charles could do nothing but give in for the moment. Laud and Strafford were arrested and soon after executed. The king's special courts were closed, illegal taxes ended, and laws were passed that Parliament must meet at least once every three years, and that the existing House of Commons could not be ended without its own consent. This is why it lasted legally for twenty years, although it did not sit all that time.

Charles' position was still not hopeless and he was determined not to give in. There were many even in Parliament who felt that the



How Parliament Became Ruler

king should not be stripped of his power. Many also did not like the Puritans, and their ideas about changing the Church of England. Also a rebellion was breaking out in Ireland, and many thought that the king should be given an army to put it down. How he would use such an army was soon shown. Feeling that Parliament was becoming divided, he decided to seize the five chief leaders who opposed him.



With an armed band, he burst into the House of Commons, only to find as he said, that 'the birds had flown'. They had escaped out another door, but two days later they returned escorted by bands of Londoners and four thousand freeholders of Buckinghamshire. It was now the king's turn to leave, and when he did so he set up his standard at Nottingham. The Civil War had begun.

(c) **The Civil War and the Triumph of the Puritan Parliament, 1642-1649.** Sadly and after much serious thought men had to take sides. If the king's power were destroyed, what would happen to the monarchy which had united England for so long? If divine right ideas won, what would become of English law, courts, liberties and Parliament? How would religious disputes be settled? So the country divided. The Royalists or Cavaliers supported the King and the Church of England. The Puritans or Parliamentary party favoured the control of the king by Parliament and Puritan church reforms. Parliament had a great advantage in the support of London and the navy. The king was stronger in the north and west of England. Scotland was uncertain, since the Scotch Presbyterians feared Charles but did not like the English Puritans much better.

Fighting started in 1642 and continued until 1646. The Royalists were successful in the early battles because they had the best of the cavalry. But Parliament had more resources in

the long run. It made full use of its taxing power to build up its forces, and during the early fighting was fortunate to discover a really strong leader, Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell, an unknown country squire at the beginning of the war, was to become one of the great men of English history. It was Cromwell who organized Parliament's New Model Army, as it was called, which beat the king's forces at the important battle of Naseby in 1645. In the next year the fighting ended, and the forces of Parliament had gained supreme power over all the land.

The king was now a prisoner, but how was peace to be made, and how was the country to be united? Long months of negotiation started. Charles soon showed that he was still determined to have his way, and on Parliament's side there were also extreme men who would not give in. Soon the king began plotting with the Scots, who had helped to defeat him but who did not like the Puritan extremists. In 1648 the Scots invaded England, this time to fight for the king, but Cromwell and his New Model Army hastened north and beat the Scots at Preston. The king's last chance to win had disappeared.

The Puritan leaders also felt that the last chance of trusting Charles had disappeared. So they brought him to trial before Parliament, and sentenced him to death. In January, 1649, he was executed. Charles met his death bravely, and England was deeply moved by these tragic events.

(d) **England Tries Rule by Parliament Alone.** England thus became a republic for the only time in its long history and was to remain so for eleven years. Only a few extreme Puritans were still left in Parliament. The army was really in control, but the Rump Parliament, as it was called, made laws abolishing the House of Lords and kingship, and setting up a council of state to make plans for the nation.



Cromwell was the strong man in the republic. Undoubtedly he wished to govern well. He encouraged trade, enforced law and order, and made England respected by foreign powers. The navy was England's great defence, and under the famous Admiral Blake England became a sea power again as in the days of Elizabeth. Cromwell also believed that England, Scotland, and Ireland should all be united under Parliament's rule if the British Isles were to have peace, and for a time he actually brought this about. But he had to do it by armed force, and his rule in Ireland was one of terror and cruelty which was an unhappy blot on his record. Force alone could never unite the British Isles, and Cromwell's union did not last.

In spite of good intentions Cromwell had an impossible task in establishing rule by Parliament alone. Even the Puritans would not all support him. Many thought he was not harsh enough, and when he tried to get a new Puritan Parliament it would not work with him. Finally he had to fall back on force alone. The country was divided into districts which were placed under military control—the rule of the Major Generals as it was called.

When Cromwell died, even most of his supporters saw that the Puritan republic was doomed. England had fought against rule by the king alone, and now she found that rule by Parliament only did not suit her either. She must have both. So Charles II, who had been out of England since his father's execution, was invited back. In 1660 the remnants of the Long Parliament came together and voted to dissolve themselves. England was once more a monarchy, and in some way king and Parliament must learn to work together.

(e) **Lasting Effects of Puritanism.** Failure of the Puritan republic did not end Puritan influence in England, because Puritan ideals continued to inspire people during the years that followed. Much of the religious feeling which influenced England so greatly in later times came from Puritan sources. Two of England's great writers, Milton and Bunyan, were Puritans, and Puritanism also

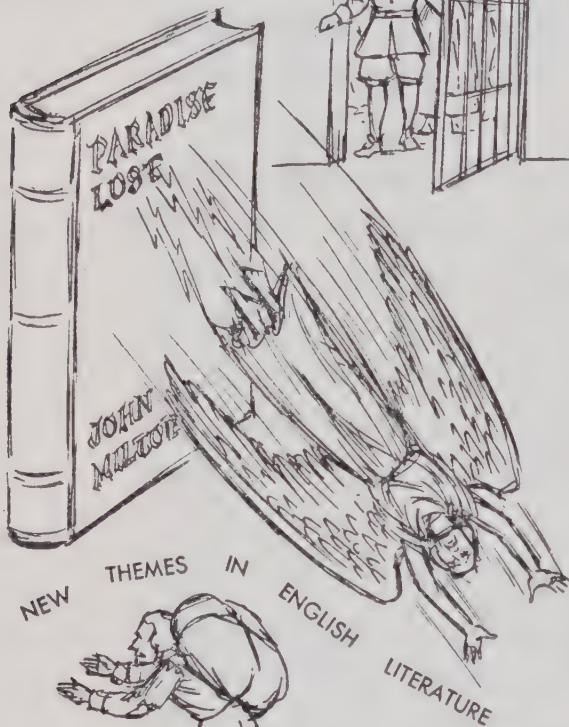
LASTING EFFECTS OF THE

PURITAN PERIOD



BEGINNINGS
OF
RELIGIOUS
TOLERATION

A NEW FREEDOM
FOR INDIVIDUALS
AND POLITICAL IDEAS



NEW THEMES IN
ENGLISH
LITERATURE



THE PURITAN EMIGRANTS TRANSPLANT
ENGLISH IDEAS TO NORTH AMERICA



had a great influence in the founding of the New England colonies. We shall notice these effects later. But Puritanism had more than religious effects. It affected the later growth of Parliament too. The Puritans stressed the importance of the individual. They believed that everyone should study his Bible and seek his own salvation. As every individual had both duties and rights which were given by God, this stressing of the importance of the individual produced new ideas of freedom. People were encouraged to think that they had a right to take part in government, and to oppose a bad or 'ungodly' government.

Some Puritans went much farther in these ideas than others; for if anything was true of the Puritans, it was that they were not all agreed. Nevertheless these ideas did strengthen Parliament, and later did much to help the growth of democracy.

3. How Parliament became the Senior Partner in Britain's Government, 1660 - 1714

(a) The King who did not Want to go on his Travels, and the Beginning of Political Parties. When Charles II came back to England in 1660 he had

How Parliament Became Ruler

been away eleven years since his father's death, and he did not, as he said, want to go on his 'travels' again. This meant that he would be careful not to get into as much trouble with Parliament as his father had done. He realized that the English people were determined to have a Parliament even if they did not want rule by Parliament alone. In fact, Charles had only been called back after an election had been held, so that it was clear that Parliament was going to be very important though no one had said which was to be the senior partner—King or Parliament.

Charles, therefore, did not talk about divine right, but he had difficulties over the same two questions as his father, religion and money, though never so serious. The trouble over religion came because Charles wanted to set aside the harsh laws against Roman Catholics and Dissenters, that is the Protestants who did not want to remain in the Church of England. These laws forbade such people to have freedom of worship or to hold public offices. The House of Commons was still determined not to give the king too much power, and this was shown by the way in which they dealt with money. They voted Charles only limited amounts, and demanded the right to examine the royal accounts to see how he spent it. Many members of Parliament also began to fear that

Charles was too friendly with France. In fact, in 1670 he made two secret Treaties of Dover with Louis XIV by which in return for £200,000 a year he promised to join in an attack on the Dutch and to re-establish Roman Catholicism in England. This was known to only a few of Charles' closest advisers, but there were deep suspicions, and signs of violence were beginning to appear.

As a result of all this Parliament began to



WHIGS . . .



TORIES

divide into two political parties, the Tories who were strong Anglicans and believed that the king should be superior to Parliament, and the Whigs who believed that Dissenters also should have rights and that Parliament should be superior to the king. These parties were still far from being like modern political parties, but for the first time in English history there were two parties organizing themselves throughout the country and struggling in elections to gain control of Parliament. This was an important new stage in Parliament's history.

(b) Another King Challenges Parliament and Loses his Throne. James II, Charles' brother, who came next on the throne, was stubborn and not nearly as tactful as Charles had been, and when a strong Tory Parliament was elected in 1685 he believed that the time had come to have his own way.

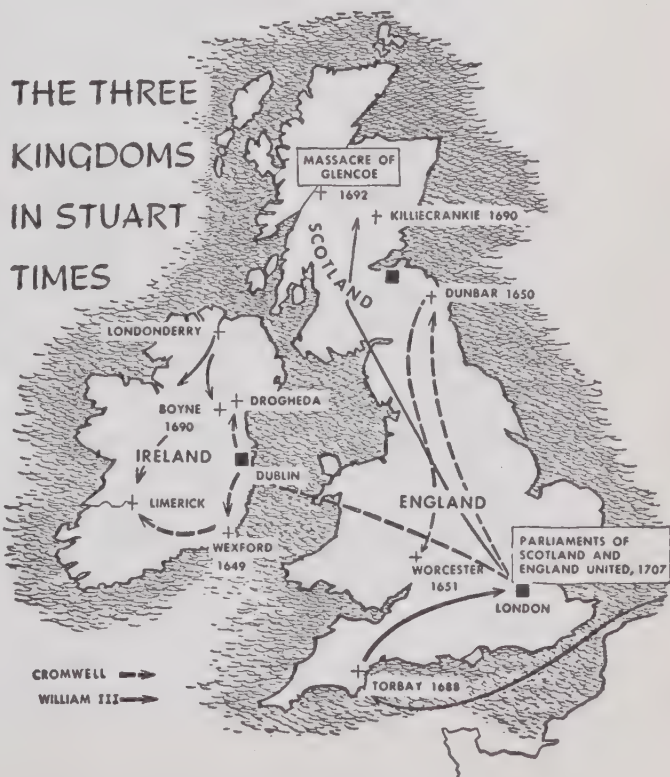
James was a strong Roman Catholic, and he also thought that with the help of France he could bring back the Roman Catholic Church as the national church in England. He increased the size of his army, stationed it near London to keep Londoners under control, appointed Roman Catholic officers, and sent to Ireland for Irish troops. He then put Roman Catholics into important government positions contrary to the law, and when objection was made to this he declared he could change the law or make new laws without consent of Parliament.

James should have seen that he was losing the loyalty even of the Tories who had welcomed him to the throne, but he went blindly ahead. The Tories were outraged by his attacks on the Church of England. Finally, he commanded all the Church of England clergy to read a royal order setting aside all the laws against both Roman Catholics and Dissenters. Seven bishops who protested against the king over-riding Parliament in this way, were arrested and brought to trial. Crowds lined the streets of London all night waiting for the decision of the jury, and when the bishops were freed, they shouted for joy; bells pealed and bonfires were lit all over England as people rejoiced over this defence of Parliament's rights.

Leaders of both Tories and Whigs now realized what a menace James was to Parliamentary government, and saw that action was necessary before he could get more troops from Ireland or help from France. The last straw was when a son was born to James just at this moment. Until then the heir to the throne was James' Protestant daughter Mary, who was a grown woman and married to William of Orange, the Protestant ruler of Holland. Now a baby boy, who would be raised a Roman Catholic, became heir to the English throne. Some even suspected that he was not the son of James at all, and he was called the warming-pan baby because there was a rumour that he had been smuggled into the queen's room in a warming pan. Quickly, seven of the chief Tory and Whig leaders signed a request to William that he should bring an army to England to support Parliament and Parliamentary government. William accepted the offer because he needed English support in Holland's life or death struggle against France.

William landed with a small force late in 1688. It was a risky business. James had an army of 40,000, but the English people were now fully aroused and William was greeted with great demonstrations. James soon realized that his cause was hopeless, and he fled to France, with his wife and baby son. Like his father, Charles I, he had lost his throne, even if he had not lost his head. So the Revolution of 1688 was carried through without bloodshed or civil war, and this is one of the reasons why it came to be known in England as 'The Glorious Revolution'.

Unfortunately the Revolution was by no means so happy in Scotland and Ireland. In Scotland many in the Highlands, especially the Roman Catholics, continued loyal to James and later to his son and grandson. Indeed, it was not

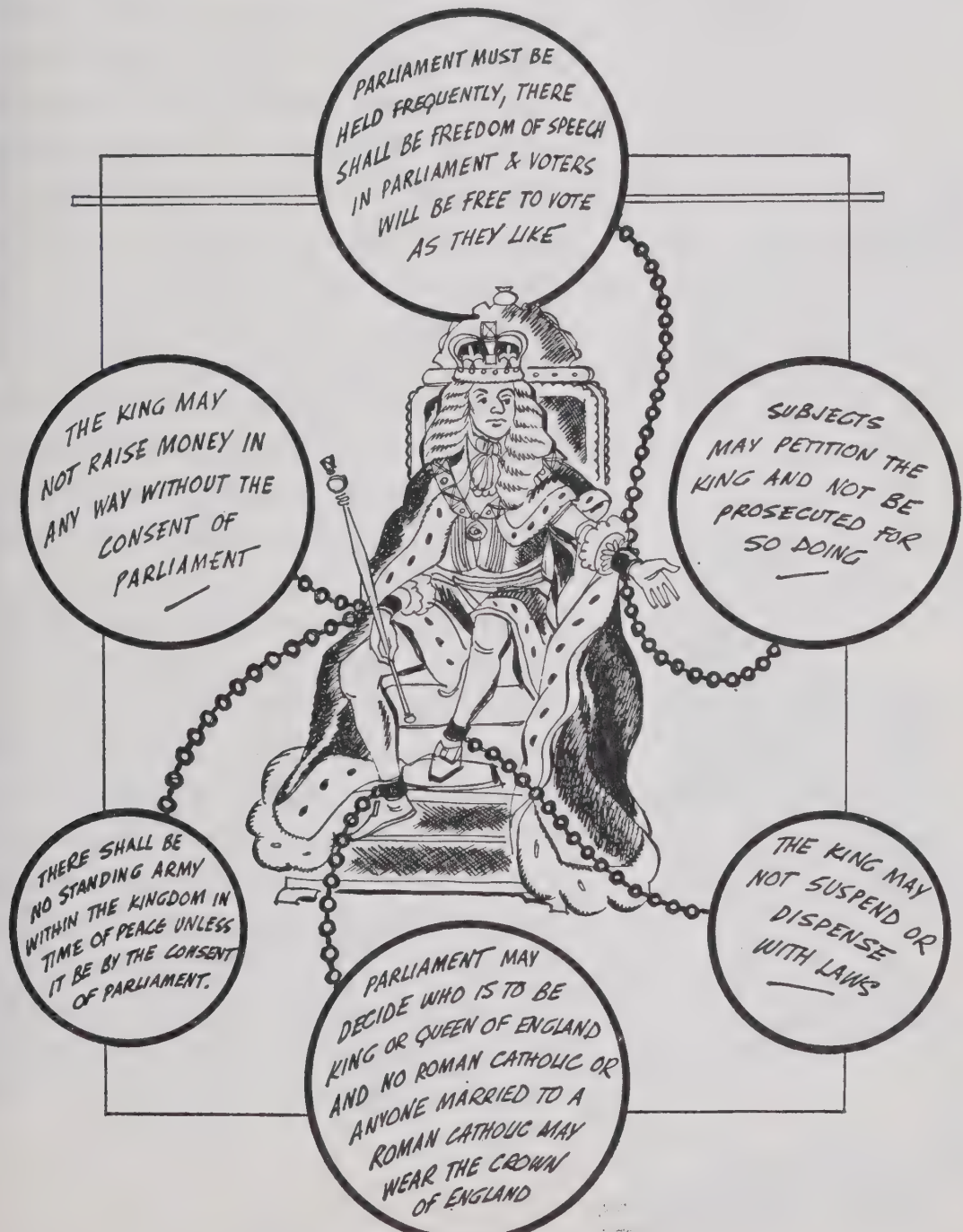


until his grandson, Bonnie Prince Charlie was beaten in the Rebellion of 1745 that these Highlanders gave up hope of restoring the Stuart kings. In Ireland the story was more unhappy still. An army of Irish and French gathered there to fight for James, and William had to take a force to Ireland to defeat them which he did at the Battle of the Boyne. This was followed by harsh laws against the Irish which still further increased bitterness in later years.

(c) **Lasting Effects of the Period of 'The Glorious Revolution'.** The chief effect of the Revolution of 1688 was that it settled the long struggle over the question as to which was supreme—king or Parliament. After the Revolution, Parliament declared William and Mary joint monarchs, the only case in English history, and a few years later it passed another act settling the succession to the throne. Since that time, therefore, English monarchs have clearly owed their crown to an act of Parliament. At the beginning of William and Mary's reign, Parliament also passed the great statute known as the Bill of Rights, which ranks almost with Magna Carta in the history of English liberties. This famous act set down the terms on which the new monarchs were crowned, and forbade them to set aside the laws of Parliament or to make new laws as James had tried to do.

Soon there were other signs that Parliament's power was growing, such as the fact that Parliaments began to meet every year, and that control over the army and navy were given to the monarch by Parliament for one year at a time only. William and Mary also found that it was wise to choose members of Parliament for their advisers, though they did not have to do so. Later, Parliament declared that it alone had the right to dismiss judges, and the courts and judges were thus made independent of the king. Thus, in one way after another, Parliament became more and more the senior partner in Britain's government, although it took almost two centuries before the monarch was completely like our twentieth century monarchs, one who reigns but has no power to rule.

Another result of the Revolution was the union of England and Scotland, although it did not take place until 1707. England and Scotland had been under one king since the death of Queen Elizabeth, but they had remained two countries with separate Parliaments except for the short time when Cromwell joined them together. The Scottish Parliament accepted William and Mary, but it was clear that if the two countries later chose different kings they might become dangerous enemies as they had been back in early Tudor times. Scotland also wanted to develop trade and

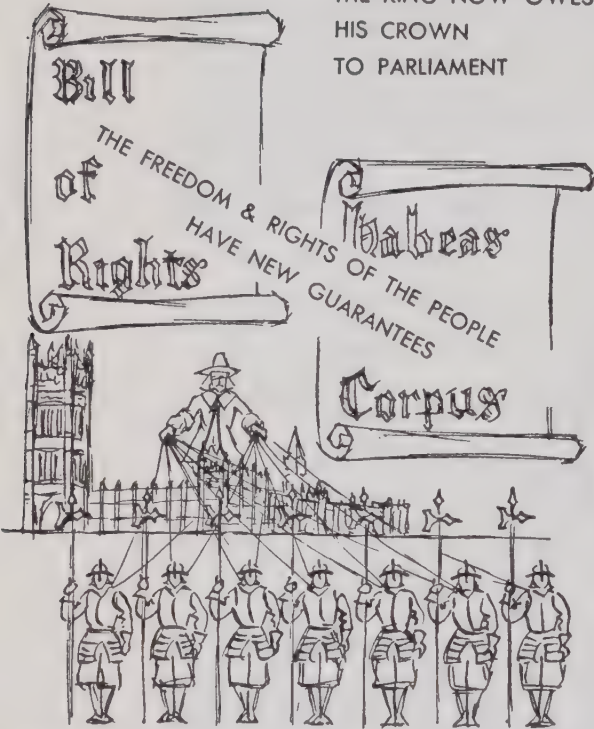


THE CROWN IS 'LIMITED' AFTER 1688

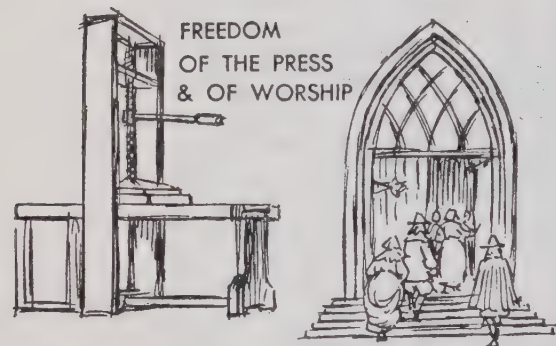
LASTING EFFECTS OF THE PERIOD
OF THE "GLORIOUS REVOLUTION"



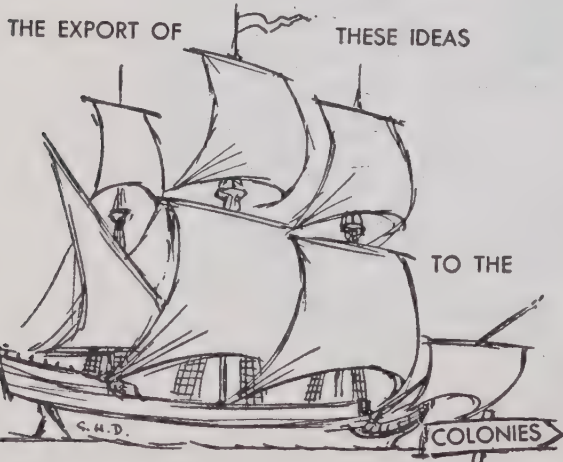
THE KING NOW OWES
HIS CROWN
TO PARLIAMENT



PARLIAMENT CONTROLS THE ARMY



FREEDOM
OF THE PRESS
& OF WORSHIP



THE EXPORT OF
THESE IDEAS

TO THE

COLONIES

overseas colonies, and joining England would open the empire to her. There were thus strong reasons for union, though many people, especially in Scotland, did not like the idea.

After much discussion union was finally approved. There was to be one Parliament, the name of the country was to be the United Kingdom of Great Britain, and the crosses of St. Andrew and St. George were combined into the Union Jack. Scotland kept the Presbyterian church as the state church, and her own system of laws and courts. Scots and English had the same rights as citizens and the same rights to trade in all British possessions. Within a few years the union proved to be of great advantage to both countries; as partners they built up a great trade and overseas empire, and became a leading power in Europe and world affairs.

Another lasting result of this period, which was also closely connected with the triumph of Parliament was the growth of toleration. Today England is known everywhere as one of the most tolerant countries in the world, but in the seventeenth century she had a different reputation. She beheaded one king, exiled another, and was torn by strife and civil war. In such a country you do not get freedom of opinion. Along with the

triumph of Parliament, however, came a change for the better. For example, in the year after the Revolution of 1688, the Toleration Act was passed. It allowed freedom of worship for Dissenters, and was the first step toward complete religious toleration in England. Toleration for different opinions also developed. Printing had increased during the reign of Charles II, but everything still had to be passed by a censor. A few years after the Revolution censorship was removed, and since then England has had one of its most cherished liberties, freedom of the press. A few years before the Revolution also was passed the famous Habeas Corpus Act declaring that no citizen should be arrested without a cause being stated, and that no one should be kept in prison without being given a speedy trial. This prevented the kind of thing Charles I had done to Sir John Eliot and many others—the kind of thing that still goes on in countries where people are hurried off to concentration camps and often never heard of again. In England toleration of opinion and freedom of the press and of the individual encouraged political parties and free debate, and so encouraged Parliamentary government.

Thus the British people were developing a system of free government and a way of life that differed very much from those of other countries. These ideas were also carried overseas, for as British people went to the colonies they took with them their love of self-government and freedom for the individual. So these ideals spread, and became part of Canada's history, and part of the heritage of Britain to the countries of the Commonwealth.



Learn by Doing

1. Have three committees find in what ways Henry VII, Henry VIII, and Elizabeth I used Parliament. (1)
2. Prepare a puppet stage and dramatize some of the duties of the Justice of the Peace as established under Henry VII. (1, a)
3. Dramatize the scene in Parliament when the Petition of Right was being drawn up. (2, a)
4. Have two committees prepare short speeches that John Eliot and Charles I might have given in Parliament in support of their views. (2, b)
5. Each pupil in a row may stand and state one of the lasting contributions of the Puritan period. (2, e)
6. Conduct an imaginary interview with William of Orange. Have him outline some of the terms of the Bill of Rights and the way in which he expected to rule. (3, c)
7. Write a newspaper report outlining some of the lasting effects of 'The Glorious Revolution'. (3, c)

Facts to Know

1. Why was Henry VII able to control the great nobles? (1)
2. In what ways did Henry VIII make England a Protestant country? (1)
3. Prove that the Tudors did a great deal to unite the British Isles. (1, b)
4. In what respect do you feel that Archbishop Laud gave poor advice to Charles I? (2, b)
5. Why did the Puritans oppose Charles I? (2, b and c)
6. What were the strengths and weaknesses of the Puritan Republic? (2, d)
7. What brought about the rise of the two parties—the Whigs and Tories—during the reign of Charles II? (3, a)
8. Why did Parliament ask William of Orange to come to England? (3, b)
9. In what way did the Union of England and Scotland help both countries? (3, c)

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UNIT FIVE

THE TRIUMPH OF DEMOCRACY, 1714 - 1914

1. *Aristocratic Britain, 1714 - 1815*
2. *The Beginnings of Democratic Reform, 1815 - 1837*
3. *Democracy Broadens out through Eighty Years, 1837 - 1918*

In Canada today elections are held at least once in every four years to select members of Parliament. Voting is by secret ballot, that is, by marking an X on a sheet of paper opposite the name or names for whom the vote is cast, with special care being taken to prevent other people from knowing how the voter marks his ballot. In Parliament, moreover, we expect that there will be members from at least two political parties. When Parliament meets, the leader of the party which has a majority becomes Prime Minister. He chooses his Cabinet, the other Ministers that govern with him, from members of his party in Parliament, and the Cabinet remains in power only so long as it can keep a majority in the House elected by the people, that is, the House of Commons.

Now these are some of the best known features of our democratic system of government, and yet none of them were fully in effect in Britain in 1714. We may say that, after the Revolution of 1688, Parliament had finally triumphed over the king, but this

does not mean that democracy as we know it today had yet been established. In 1714 only a few of the people could vote for Parliament. Also the rules for voting differed greatly in different places, and there was no secret ballot. Elections were open, which meant that the voter walked onto a raised platform and announced the name of the person for whom he wished to vote. Such open elections often led to attempts to influence or frighten voters by bribes or threats. Furthermore, there was no Prime Minister, the Cabinet was in its early stages, and the monarch still played a considerable part in government, even though Parliament was supreme.

Within the next two centuries however, sweeping changes occurred. By 1714, as we have seen, Britain had a parliamentary system of government, but it is the purpose of this chapter to show how by 1914 she had a democratic, as well as a parliamentary, system. Parliament still rules, but it is now a Parliament chosen by all the people, and through it the people rule. So in these two centuries a democratic revolution took place. It was a peaceful and gradual one, but it was a revolution, just the same, and from Britain many of its results were carried across the sea to Canada and the other Dominions.

1. Aristocratic Britain, 1714 - 1815

Queen Anne was the last of the Stuart monarchs, and when she died in 1714 without heirs George, the ruler of a small German state, Hanover, was brought to Britain and crowned as George I, the first of the Hanoverians. The son of James II (the 'warming-pan baby') was now grown up and claimed the throne. Indeed, there was a little rebellion in his favour a year later. But Parliament did not want a son of Catholic James as king, and early in Queen Anne's reign it had passed an Act of Settlement arranging for the Protestant ruler of Hanover to

succeed Queen Anne. George could actually trace his descent back to James I, but this hereditary right was not direct enough to have given him the throne. It was the act of Parliament which did that, so clearly Parliament was supreme.

(a) The 'Unreformed' Parliament of the Eighteenth Century.

What kind of Parliament was this which was now supreme in the kingdom? About seventy great aristocratic families largely controlled the affairs of the nation, and so we may describe Britain in the eighteenth century as Aristocratic Britain. The House of Lords was, of course, controlled by these noble families, but they were able through their influence and power to rule the House of Commons too. In England, unlike France, only the eldest son of a noble family became a nobleman, which was a good thing in many ways and younger sons were thus able to go into the House of Commons. Noble families could also get friends and

supporters elected to the House of Commons. In England also it was no disgrace for noble families to inter-marry with the families of wealthy merchants. Thus Aristocratic Britain was under the control not only of the landed nobility, but



CORNWALL 1830



LANCASHIRE 1830

also of the rich merchant class which controlled the cities and towns of that day, and through them elected many members to the House of Commons.

How these few great families controlled the House of Commons will be clearer if we understand something of how it was made up and how its members were elected. Today all parts of the country are represented according to population; but, in the eighteenth century and before that, it was thought to be sufficient if the different classes in the country were represented. So the House of Lords was made up of nobles and bishops, while the House of Commons had in it representatives from the counties and the towns or boroughs. Each county had two representatives, the tiny county of Rutland just as many as the great county of

York. As for the towns, no matter how large or small they were, only those sent representatives which had been given the right by the king sometime in the past. These were called the parliamentary boroughs, and no new ones were created in the eighteenth century. So new towns, especially in the north and the Midlands which, like Liverpool, were growing fast at that time, sent no representatives, while many small towns in the south did so. As you can see on the maps, there were a great many more boroughs with representatives in Cornwall in 1830 than in Lancashire, although Lancashire had many more real towns and a larger population than Cornwall. The argument was that as long as the townsmen and merchants had representatives it did not matter what towns sent them. There were, however, some ridiculous cases. Representatives were still sent by Old Sarum, which by the eighteenth century was nothing but a green mound, and by Dunwich, which was gradually being covered by the North Sea, so that it was said that the voters would soon have to go out in boats to hold the election. But no reforms were made.

Even more strange from our point of view were the methods of election in the towns. The rules for voting varied from town to town and while in some the voters were numerous, in others they were very few. In some cases, for example, the vote was given only to those who held certain offices, or to the owners of certain bits of land, or to those whose ancestors had in some way obtained the right. It was quite possible, in fact, for a man to sit in Parliament who had no right to vote. Strangest of all were the nomination, or 'pocket' boroughs, and the 'rotten' boroughs. A nomination borough was one for which one person had the right to name the representatives, for there were usually two. In other words he had the election in his pocket. The 'rotten' boroughs were those in which a very few people had the right to name the representatives, and they were willing to sell the seat. Seats were regularly bought and sold, usually for four or five thousand pounds, and sometimes even advertised.

It was even argued that this was a good thing as it would allow independent men to get into Parliament.

It is said that only about two per cent of the people of England and Scotland had the vote in the eighteenth century, and in 1793 an investigation showed that 307 members or over half the House of Commons were elected by only 154 persons. We can now understand how the seventy or so great families really controlled Aristocratic Britain through Parliament. Democracy had not yet been born.

We would certainly not be satisfied with so undemocratic a system, but we should be wrong to think of the 'Unreformed' Parliament of the eighteenth century as utterly corrupt and weak. It was far from that, as we shall see. Some of England's greatest statesmen, like Walpole and the two William Pitts, father and son, served in it; and, although it made some serious mistakes, it gave England much good government.

(b) The Modern Cabinet begins to Develop. An important development of the eighteenth century was the growth of the Cabinet. At the beginning of the century there was no Prime Minister and no Cabinet of ministers depending on the House of Commons as there is today. There was a small council of ministers, as there had been for a long time, presided over usually by the monarch. Queen Anne was the last British monarch to preside regularly over this council. Also most of its members were chosen from the House of Lords, and did not all have to belong to one party. Nor did they all have to resign like a modern Cabinet if they were beaten in the House of Commons, although the monarch was finding that it was easier to get along with the council if its members agreed with one another, and if it also had the support of the House of Commons.

The Cabinet grew in particular under the leadership of Sir Robert Walpole. In 1721 he became the chief minister of George I and remained in power for twenty-one years. He is often called the first Prime Minister, though that title was not regularly used until later. Walpole was a country squire who loved good living



A CABINET MEETING IN WALPOLE'S DAY

and fox hunting like his neighbours, but he also had other qualities. He was a very shrewd financial man, and came into power after a financial scandal called the South Sea Bubble. Walpole warned the government not to go into a wild scheme of making money in South Sea stocks, and his advice, which was not taken, proved to be right. Walpole was also a fine debater and a great Whig. Many of the Tories did not like the Hanoverian George I, and some of them would have even preferred the son of James II. So we can see why Walpole built up his Whig party in the House of Commons, and insisted on all the ministers being Whigs, and why George I supported him in any way possible. So the king's council became a one-party Cabinet (so named because it was able to meet in a small room or 'cabinet'), relying on the House of Commons, and under the leadership of a chief minister.

George I could not speak English, and strangely enough this was also important because he stayed away from Cabinet meetings. This set the custom for later kings too, and made the Cabinet more independent than it would otherwise have been. It is said that the only way Walpole and George I could talk together in private was in Latin, and this is an interesting illustration that Latin was still understood as a spoken language by educated men in Europe in the mid-eighteenth century.

We must not think that Walpole was the only person who helped the early growth of the Cabinet or that it was fully grown when Walpole was finally beaten in the House of Commons and resigned. After Walpole's time its members did not always act together, like a modern Cabinet, or resign immediately when beaten by a vote in the House of Commons. Still it is not too much to say that under Walpole, the king's council became a Cabinet and that he may fairly be called the first Prime Minister. The Cabinet thus became a real link between the monarch and the House of Commons, and provided a government that had the support of the country. No other nation has yet been able to devise such a satisfactory system as this.

(c) **Aristocratic Britain Faces Three Great Crises.** The 'Unreformed' Parliament faced three great crises in the eighteenth century which show both how well, and how badly, it worked. These crises also, as it happens, were important for Canadian history too.

The first was the Seven Years' War which ended with the Peace of Paris in 1763, and which, among other results, brought about the conquest of Canada from the French. This was not the first war against France in the eighteenth century. There had been also the war which ended with the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. But the Seven Years' War was fought not only in Europe and America but on the oceans and in India, as we shall see in Unit Eight. So it was as nearly a World War as it could be in that day.

The war started out very badly for the British. In America General Braddock was ambushed and his army destroyed by the French and Indians, and soon news of disasters was coming in from other places. The king's ministers were divided, and there was no strong leadership. The 'Unreformed' Parliament was showing its weakest and worst side.

This was the situation into which stepped William Pitt, who soon showed himself to be one of the greatest statesmen in

English history. Pitt had been in Parliament for twenty years, but he did not belong to one of the great families and he refused to raise himself into power by the corrupt methods that were all too often used in the Parliament of that day. He was known throughout the land, however, for his courage and remarkable abilities and was called 'the Great Commoner' because of his defence of English liberties. Demands poured in for Pitt to be put into the Cabinet. When this was done the first time, his bitter enemies in Parliament and the king, George II, who did not like him, forced him out. The nation was for him, however, and in three months he had to be brought back. This time Pitt formed the famous Pitt-Newcastle ministry, with the Duke of Newcastle who belonged to one of the powerful old families and controlled many seats in the House of Commons.

It was this Pitt-Newcastle ministry that carried Britain through to victory in the Seven Years' War. Pitt put vigour into the war effort and raised the spirit of the whole nation. He placed new men in command, gave help to his allies in Europe, and organized victorious forces in India, America, and on the sea. One of his young commanders was General Wolfe, and in 1759, a year of striking British victories, Wolfe's capture of Quebec was one of the greatest successes.

The story of the Seven Years' War and Pitt shows some interesting things about both the strength and weaknesses of the 'Unreformed' Parliament. We can see that it did serve the country, but it was far too much controlled by leaders of the great families like Newcastle, and Pitt never would have come to power had it not been that the nation was threatened with disaster.

The second crisis, following close on the heels of the Seven Years'



War, was of a different kind. It was the American Revolution in which the Thirteen Colonies won their independence and formed the United States. Since the northern colonies of Quebec, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland refused to join the Revolution, it was almost as important for Canada too. In Unit Eight we shall learn more about it, but here we only need to notice the unfortunate part played in the trouble with the colonies by the king, George III, and the British Parliament of the day.

When the Seven Years' War was ended the Thirteen Colonies were loyal to the British Empire, though they were fast growing up and felt much more independent now that France had been driven out of North America. The Thirteen Colonies would probably have tried soon to gain more freedom from British control, but this might perhaps have come about peacefully had it not been for George III and his unwise supporters in Parliament. Their first mistake was to decide that Parliament should tax the colonies, which it had never done before. The colonies protested with riots and petitions to England. Pitt and others denounced Parliament's unwise action. No Britisher, Pitt said, should be taxed by a Parliament in which he was not properly represented, and certainly the colonies were not properly represented in London.

The first tax was withdrawn, but other unpopular taxes were later put on. It is true that there were hot heads and trouble makers in the colonies who wanted to make things worse, but George III and his supporters in Parliament would not see that their own actions were only encouraging rebellion and making it more difficult for the friends of Britain in America. The final result was that fighting broke out, and the Declaration of Independence was adopted by the Thirteen Colonies in 1776, although even then there were many thousands of Loyalists in the colonies who did not wish independence. George III and his ministers bungled the war in America too, and all through it Pitt and some others, including the great orator Edmond Burke kept criticizing the government's policy in Parliament. When the British army was beaten at

Yorktown in Virginia it was clear that the Thirteen Colonies must be given their independence as the United States of America.

The American Revolution was the blackest mark against the record of the 'Unreformed' Parliament, and the blame must be shared by the king. When George III came to the throne in 1760 he had decided to take a more active part in government than George I and II. He did not intend to go back to the kind of thing James II had done, but he built up a following of 'King's Friends' in the House of Commons and began to dictate to his ministers.

This proved to be aristocratic rule at its worst. George III had good intentions, but the results of his mixing in politics were so disastrous that no later monarch has tried to interfere in the same way.

The third crisis was the French Revolution followed by the war with Napoleon. When in France in 1789 the people rose to overthrow their rulers, many people in England welcomed this revolution. France had had an absolute king with a feudal system which oppressed the common people, and it was hoped that she would now have a more liberal system with something like a parliamentary government. A French Assembly drew up a 'Declaration of the Rights of Man', and new ideas of 'liberty, fraternity and equality' spread through the land. Reform was opposed, however, and soon the revolution became violent and extreme. The king and then the queen were beheaded, and a 'reign of terror' began which brought hundreds of helpless people to the guillotine without a fair trial.

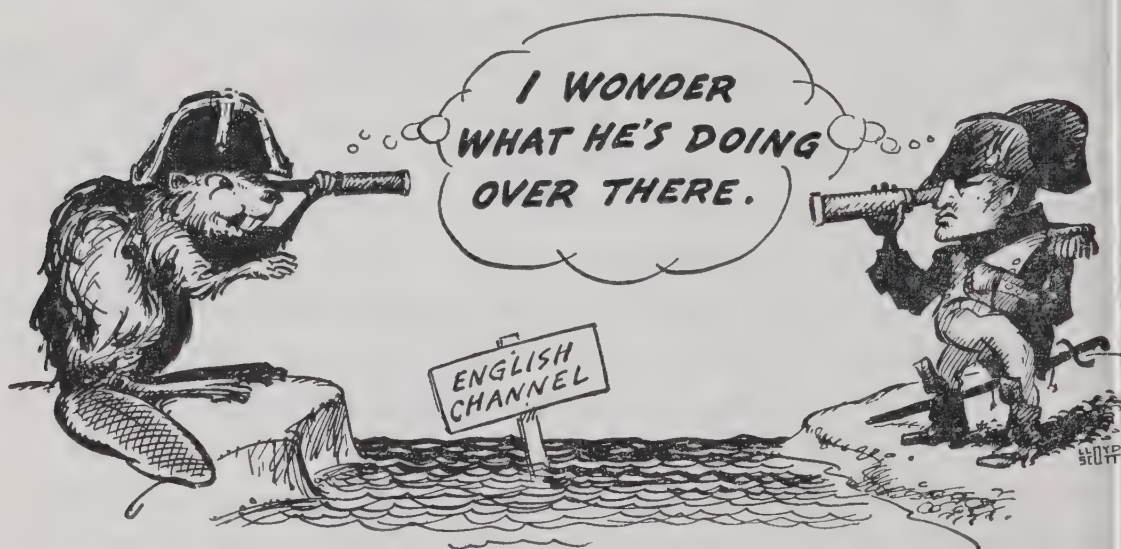
The governments of other countries were horrified and feared lest the violence of the Revolution spread to them. The effect



THE THREAT OF NAPOLEON

on England was most unfortunate. Following the American Revolution there had been some signs of reform, and even the reform of Parliament was talked about. But the French Revolution so frightened the leaders of Parliament that reform was put off for another thirty years. This was neither wise nor courageous. The English people would have been made more contented, not less, if wise reforms had been brought in and actually there was little desire among them to copy the violence of the French Revolution.

The French Revolution had not gone far before a warlike France was once more fighting Britain, and when Napoleon came to power in France the situation became very serious. Napoleon was one



of the greatest generals in world history, and he was determined to conquer Europe and especially Britain which stood in his way, only a few miles across the narrow waters of the English Channel. For almost twenty years the threat of Napoleon hung over Britain, until he was finally conquered in 1815 at Waterloo.

During this long crisis, England was governed by the 'Unreformed' Parliament. In his later years George III became insane, and the responsibilities of government lay more and more on the House of Commons. It was the navy that saved Britain. Fortunately there were great admirals, and the government was wise enough to put them in command. Among them was the greatest

naval hero in British history, Horatio Nelson. By 1805 Napoleon, in a series of smashing victories, had made himself master of all Western Europe. He was ready to conquer England, but in that very year Nelson won his greatest triumph, the Battle of Trafalgar, in which he destroyed the French fleet. Trafalgar is therefore as important in British history as the defeat of the Armada. It made the British navy supreme on the seas for over a century, and removed any chance of Napoleon invading England. Today in Portsmouth harbour may still be seen Nelson's flagship the *Victory*, on the quarterdeck of which he died at Trafalgar.

With Napoleon supreme on land, a stalemate seemed to have been reached. But Britain with her control of the sea was able to land forces on the coast of Europe whenever people were rising, and Napoleon soon found he had a war on his hands in Spain



and Portugal. Then he made the mistake of invading Russia where he received one of his worst defeats. He hurried back to the West to find that his subject peoples were rising against him. Two more years of terrible fighting followed, but finally he was beaten by the allies, under the Duke of Wellington at Waterloo.

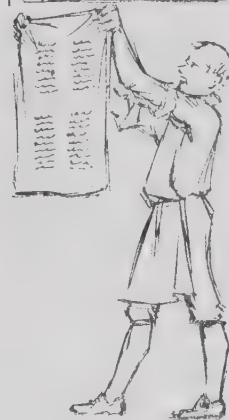
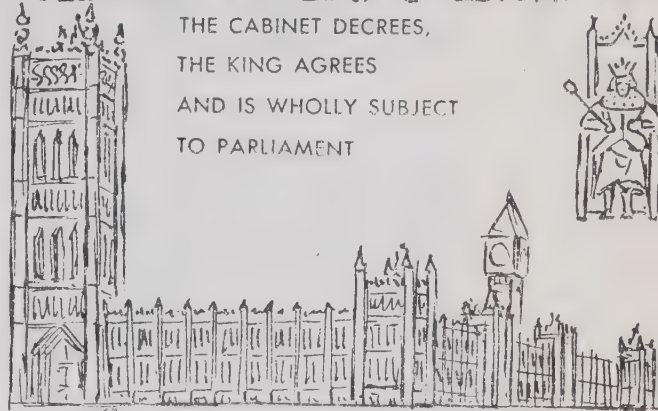
In each of these three crises of the eighteenth century we can see what an important part was played by the 'Unreformed' Parliament. Its actions were not always wise, but it did bring England through some very dangerous years. In this period it was certainly Parliament that ruled, for only one great statesman was produced in the years following the American Revolution. This was William Pitt, the younger, a son of the famous William Pitt who led Britain through the Seven Years' War. Although the Younger Pitt was not as great a statesman as his father, he had a very remarkable career. When only twenty-four he became Prime Minister, and with one brief interval remained in power for twenty-two years until his death. When Pitt came into power just after the American Revolution, he brought in a number of reforms and was even considering the reform of Parliament. But the French Revolution caused him to drop such ideas, and then he had to turn all his efforts to the war against Napoleon. He did not live to see Napoleon defeated, however, as he died almost ten years before Waterloo. Pitt's main support was in the Tory party. He greatly strengthened it, and more than anyone else he was the founder of the Tory party of the nineteenth century.

(e) **Lasting Effects of the Aristocratic Period.** Although Aristocratic Britain had its weaknesses, it made some contributions which have lasted to our own day. A very important one, as we have seen, was the development of the Cabinet system, by which the king ceased more and more to rule and government was carried on by the Cabinet and the Houses of Parliament. We thus owe a great deal to the Aristocratic Period for making Parliament really supreme. Although the eighteenth-century Parliament needed reforming, it served the nation well, and gave leadership in spite of many mistakes.

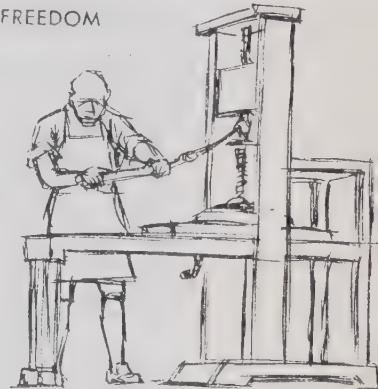
We must not forget, too, that in this period England became known for its freedom and tolerance. Walpole in his long rule refused to enforce harsh laws against religious groups or against his enemies. So religious freedom as well as freedom of the press and freedom of opinion flourished as never before. England became famous as the most tolerant country in Europe. The British people became proud of this reputation for freedom and toleration, and they came to feel that reform need not be brought about by violent revolution or civil war, but that it could come by peaceful change. To the present day that idea is an important one in Britain and the Commonwealth.



THE CABINET DECIDES,
THE KING AGREES
AND IS WHOLLY SUBJECT
TO PARLIAMENT



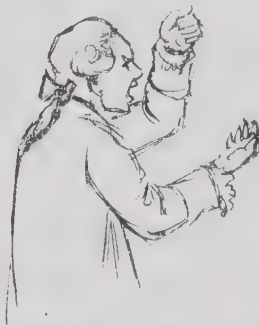
FREEDOM



OF THE PRESS
OF OPINION,
OF RELIGION

2. The Beginnings of Democratic Reform, 1815 - 1837

When peace once more came to Britain after 1815, reform was long overdue. England's population and especially the cities had been growing rapidly, and many people were working and living under terrible conditions. Now that the war was over people were no longer so con-



ARE ESTABLISHED, AS BASIC RIGHTS



tent to put up with these things. The French Revolution had also made people think of liberty and equality, and many writers and thinkers were busy putting forth their ideas. William Cobbett, for example, in his *Weekly Political Register*, which got a great circulation because it was sold for only two pence, declared that the workers were losing their ancient rights as Englishmen. He urged that they should have the vote and that Parliament should be reformed so as to make it more representative of the English people. Robert Owen, a manufacturer, was another who preached the need for reform so that the wealth of the nation would be shared more equally. Owen was the father of modern English 'Socialism', though the word had not then been coined.

Very foolishly the government at first tried to suppress the demands for reform. In 1819, for example, a meeting in favour of Parliamentary reform held at St. Peter's Fields, Manchester, was broken up by force. Hundreds were injured, some were killed, and this Peterloo Massacre, as it was called, raised a storm of indignation.

(a) **The Great Reform Bill of 1832.** Parliamentary reform was the thing most needed, but it was firmly opposed by many Tory members of Parliament, and instead of it the Tory government brought in several other reforms first. For example, many English laws which provided severe punishments such as hanging for what we now think of as minor offences were changed, the death penalty being abolished for over one hundred crimes. Laws forbidding Trade Unions were also repealed, which was a very



THERE ARE A FEW EXCEPTIONS, SUCH AS JUDGES . . .

important step for later English history. Another reform of a different kind was the organization of a London police force which soon became a model for other British towns. In honour of Sir Robert Peel, the minister who was responsible, the London policemen came to be known as 'bobbies', a nickname they have had ever since.

These reforms, good as they were, would not take the place of Parliamentary reform, however. The Tories were against it, but finally in 1830, the Whigs won a majority in the House of Commons, and brought in a bill to do away with the worst injustices in the system of electing members of Parliament. Bitter opposition came from the great Tory landowners and others who had unusual privileges, and it seemed as if the Bill could never pass the House of Lords even if the Commons wanted it. The Whigs were determined to get "the Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill", and at times it appeared that the country was on the verge of revolution. Finally the Whigs won a second election, and the king, William IV, was now determined to see the Bill through. He threatened to create many new members of the House of Lords who would support reform and give the Bill a majority. With this threat the opposition at last gave in, and the Bill was passed.

The Reform Bill of 1832 was only the first step towards the triumph of democracy, but it was a very important one. It did away with the 'rotten' and 'pocket' boroughs and gave representation by population, especially to the growing industrial towns and cities. The right to vote was also changed and made the



same in all parts of the country. In towns the vote was given to all persons who paid £10 a year in rent, and in the country to various kinds of land holders and tenants. This franchise was far from the fully democratic one we have today. Classes like factory and farm workers still did not have the vote, but the Reform Bill of 1832 was nevertheless a great step forward that opened the way for still further advances.

(b) **The Work of the Reformed Parliament, 1832-1837.** The great Reform Bill of 1832 was soon followed by several other reforms. The Factory Act of 1833 was one of the most important. Conditions of work in many factories were very terrible. Small children often worked for twelve or more hours a day, and nothing effective had been done to prevent such things. This new Act forbade the employment of children under nine, and limited the hours for older children to nine a day. Another new step was the appointing of inspectors to see that the law was obeyed. England was beginning to realize the need for better working conditions and living conditions, and just at this time a great leader in this crusade appeared in the person of Lord Shaftesbury. More than anyone else he was responsible for a long series of Factory Acts which gradually swept away the worst abuses. Later Acts, for example, set the hours for adult factory workers, and the disgraceful working conditions in mines were partly remedied by the Mines Act of 1842, which forbade the working of women and children underground, and required inspectors to visit all mines. Thus Par-

Parliament began to take over responsibility for protecting workers, a responsibility that has steadily increased down to the present day.

Parliament also tried to improve living conditions in towns by passing a Municipal Reform Act which gave towns the right to govern themselves by elected councils. These councils were given power to collect taxes for local needs, and many of the most responsible citizens were soon giving their time freely in these councils to improve conditions. This was the beginning of democratic municipal government in England, and no reform of the period was more important. Gradually streets were paved, drained and lighted, policing was improved, and regulations were made for better housing, health, and working conditions.

One of the reforms of these years did not directly affect anyone in England but it was one of the most remarkable of all. It was the abolition of slavery throughout the British Empire, and to bring this about Parliament voted £20,000,000. Thus the English taxpayer helped to free the slaves in the colonies, and the British Empire became an example of freedom instead of a defender of slavery.

1. ABOLITION OF THE SLAVE TRADE — 1807

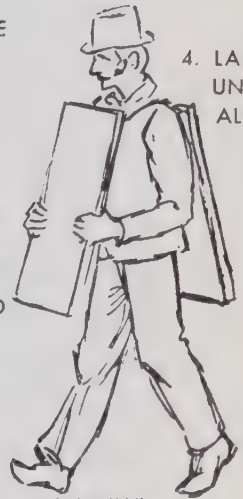


2. DEATH PENALTY ABOLISHED

FOR 100 CRIMES



3 LONDON POLICE ORGANIZED



4. LABOUR UNIONS ALLOWED

5. AFTER 1833 CHILDREN UNDER 9 CANNOT BE HIRED

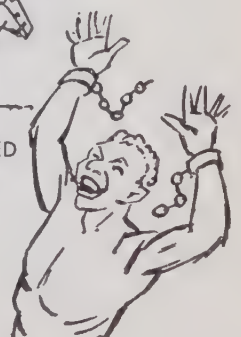
(OTHER CHILDREN MAY WORK "ONLY" NINE HOURS DAILY)



6. IN 1842 IT BECAME ILLEGAL FOR WOMEN & CHILDREN TO WORK IN MINES.



7. MUNICIPAL SERVICES ORGANIZED



8. SLAVERY ABOLISHED IN THE B.E.

Earlier in the century, in 1807, another great example had been given when Parliament abolished the slave trade. For generations English ships had been carrying slaves from Africa to America and other places, and fortunes had been made out of this terrible traffic. Finally a group of religious people led by William Wilberforce decided that they would destroy this evil, but it took them over twenty years of continual work inside and outside Parliament. Because of this great fight against the slave trade, the abolition of slavery in the 1830's came much more easily than it would otherwise have done.

Another change made by the Reformed Parliament was much less successful. This was the new Poor Law, passed in 1834, which did away with the old system of poor relief that dated back to the days of Queen Elizabeth. The change was needed because the old system had got badly out of control. The factory owners kept wages very low, and the workers had to depend on relief to keep themselves alive. The new Poor Law put an end to this but it was also very hard on the working people. In order to receive relief able-bodied workers now had to go into 'workhouses' which quickly became feared and hated because of their harsh rules.

We can thus see that the reforms which followed the Reform Bill of 1832 had their limits and while some were very useful, not all worked out well. Later reforms, moreover, such as unemployment insurance or workmen's compensation, were not even thought of at that time. Yet the reforms of the 1830's were important because they were the real beginning of democratic reform in England. They were a foundation. In the next century they were to be followed by many others which would really bring about a peaceful revolution in England, and would also influence Canada and many other countries.

3. Democracy Steadily Broadens Out, 1837 - 1914



In the early hours of June 20, 1837, when King William IV died, the Archbishop of Canterbury with the Lord Chamberlain hurried to Kensington Palace to tell the late king's niece, Victoria, that she was now Queen. Hastily roused from sleep, she received them, we are told, at five in the morning with her feet in slippers and her hair down her back. So began a reign of sixty-four years, the longest in English history and one of the most remarkable in any country.

Victoria was only eighteen when she came to the throne, and the thought of a beautiful young queen thrilled the people of Britain after a long succession of kings none of whom had been popular, and one or two of whom had been truly disliked. Victoria in her long reign was to become the idol of her subjects, not only in Britain but overseas. In Canada generations of boys and girls grew up celebrating her birthday and repeating the rhyme:

The twenty-fourth of May is the Queen's birthday.
If you don't give us a holiday, we'll all run away.

And long after her death the name of Queen Victoria stirred the memory of millions who had never seen her.

The really remarkable thing about Victoria's reign, however, were the changes which took place. When she came to the throne great democratic changes were just beginning. The Reform Bill of 1832 had brought the first reform of Parliament, and this was quickly followed, as we have seen, by some other reforms. In the next eighty years the masses of the British people were to get the vote and political power such as they had never had before. In many countries such a democratic revolution destroyed monarchies

and brought violence and even civil war. But in Britain the democratic revolution was accepted gradually and peacefully while the monarchy gained more and more affection.

Although Queen Victoria was not responsible for the revolution, she made a very large contribution to it. For the sixty-four years she sat on the throne she was the living symbol of the unity of her people. She became an example, beloved by her subjects throughout the world, and by accepting the great changes of these years she showed once more that Britain could pass through a revolution step by step and without throwing away those things from her past that were worth preserving.

(a) **Queen Victoria's First Years: The Chartists and the Adoption of Free Trade.** Queen Victoria's reign did not begin happily. In England there was still much bitter discontent, and in Canada her first year was marred by the Rebellions of 1837. The Reform Bill of 1832 had not helped English factory workers and poor labourers. Food was dear, work scarce, wages low, and housing bad. It is said that in Manchester one-tenth of the population lived in foul cellars below the street level. No wonder such evil conditions caused protests. The most famous of these was the 'People's Charter', drawn up first in 1838 at a meeting in Birmingham. This famous charter was really a petition to Parliament and the people who supported it got the name of Chartists. The things which it requested seem reasonable now, such as the vote for adult males, the secret ballot, and payment of Members of Parliament so that a worker could afford to go to Parliament if he were elected. But at that time these ideas were thought to be very radical, and there was strong opposition to them. The Charter was said to have been signed by over a million people. Great excitement swept the country, and talk of rebellion was common. However, the few riots which took place were put down, and when the Charter was presented to Parliament it was refused.

A few years after the first petition, the Charter was once more presented, but again without success, and the Chartist movement, after lasting about ten years, died out. Its name was long remem-

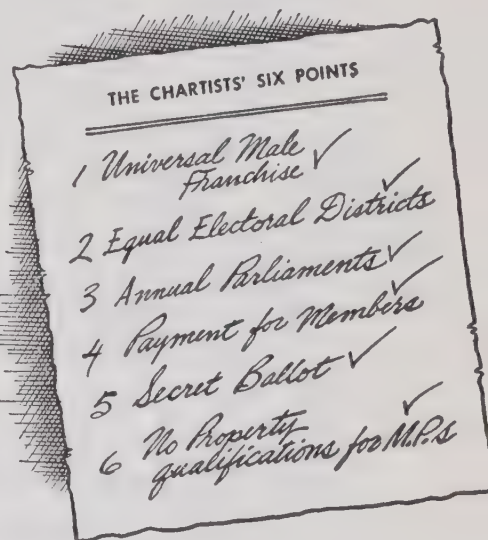
bered, however, and Chartists who went to colonies like Australia helped to carry on the struggle for democracy there.

The high cost of food was one of the great causes of discontent in the early years of Queen Victoria's reign. By the Corn Laws Parliament had 'protected' British producers of grain by putting heavy taxes, or duties, on cheaper grain and flour brought in from abroad. Hence the price of bread was very high as compared with men's wages. Factory owners and workers united in demanding that food be made cheaper by allowing foreign grain to enter Britain without duties. Just when this struggle was at its height, a potato crop failure in Ireland caused terrible starvation. Food was needed as cheaply as possible and the opposition in Parliament gave in. The Corn Laws were repealed.

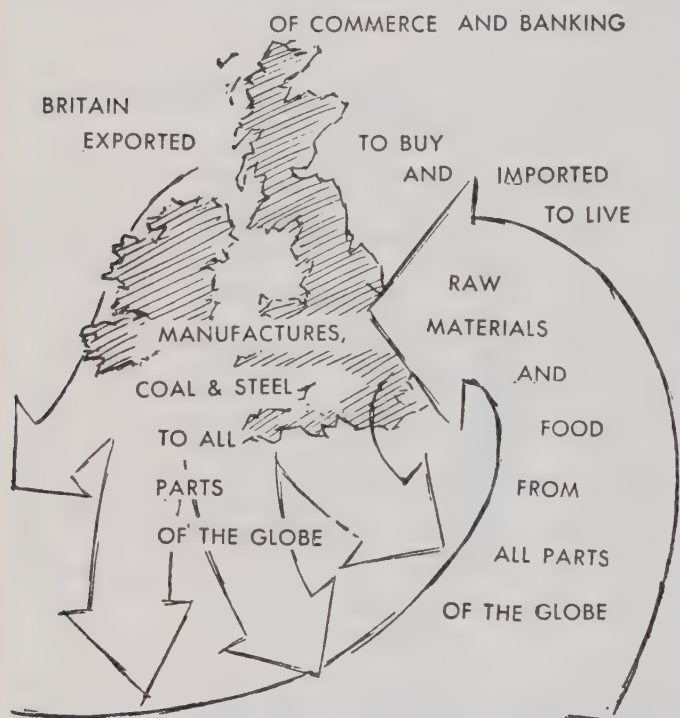
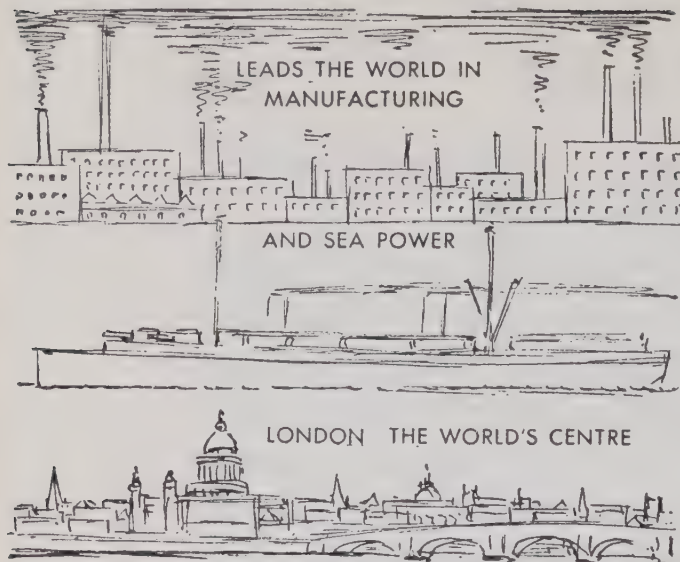
This was a much greater change than might appear at first sight. Soon other duties were dropped, and Britain adopted Free Trade, by which all kinds of goods could come in from other lands without payment of duties. Britain was becoming a manufacturing nation far ahead of other countries, and cheap food helped her lead the world in producing manufactured goods. Britain was the only country to adopt Free Trade, and not until other countries caught up with her in the twentieth century was she forced to drop Free Trade and begin again to protect her own industries.

(b) **The Great Victorian Age.** The latter half of the nineteenth century is often called the Victorian Age. It was the time when Britain was the main manufacturing country of the world, and increasing trade brought great wealth to the nation. Britain was the world's greatest sea power. Her wealth made it possible for her to support a navy larger than the combined navies of any two other countries. She was thus able to keep peace on the oceans, and to keep the ocean routes open to the ships of all nations.

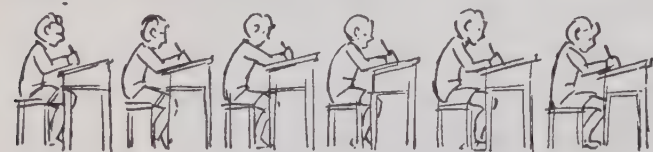
Britain through her manufacturing, her world trade, and naval



BRITAIN IN THE VICTORIAN AGE



BIRTH OF THE LABOUR MOVEMENT



ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL SCHOOLS



& EXTENSION OF THE RIGHT TO VOTE.

strength became the centre of world commerce and banking, and London became the world's most important capital, a city with not only ancient traditions but with new and great wealth. Trade flowed in greater volume than ever before through London, Liverpool, Glasgow, and other ports, as ships unloaded cargoes from all parts of the world, and took on manufactured articles, iron and coal.

Britain was fortunate to have iron and coal in abundance, and these with sea power were the bases of her strength. Iron fed her glowing blast furnaces and was turned into steel and manufactured articles of many kinds. Coal drove the machinery of her factories, trains, and ships. Raw material and food came to her from across the seas, and in return she sent back iron products, coal and manufactured goods of all sorts. It is little wonder that she came to be called the workshop of the world.

In Victorian Britain it was the middle class that prospered most. The owners of factories and businesses, the bankers and merchants of all kinds grew in wealth through world trade. The workers in factories, railways and ships also improved their position, however. A

number of reforms helped them, such as the Education Act of 1870 which for the first time provided a national system of schools. The power of trade unions was also growing. For many years their progress was slow and there were laws which hampered them. By the 1870's, however, these conditions changed. The trade unions began to develop able leaders, and in 1871 a Trade Union Congress was formed, which brought together the unions throughout the country. This congress has met every year since that time to consider questions affecting all the trade unions.

In Victorian Britain there were two great political parties, the Liberals and the Conservatives, so much so that a well known rhyme said that

Every boy that's born alive
Is either a little Liberal
Or a little Conservative.

These parties had developed out of the Whig and Tory parties of earlier years, the Liberals being mostly from the Whig party, and the Conservatives from the Tory party. Each party also produced a famous leader prominent in public life through most of Victoria's reign—William Ewart Gladstone for the Liberals, and Benjamin Disraeli for the Conservatives. Although they differed in their ideas and plans both were responsible for important reforms. Gladstone was supported strongly by the middle class, and he brought in many reforms which improved the efficiency of government and the civil service.

Gladstone's government passed the Education Act of 1870 and also brought in the secret ballot. He also was responsible for reforms in Ireland, and in his last ministry he tried to get Home Rule (separate self-government) for Ireland but did not succeed.

Disraeli's Conservative party was chiefly supported by the land-owners and rural sections, but he succeeded also in getting support from the labouring classes because he believed that the government should assist them and in some ways he was willing to do more for them than Gladstone was. It was Disraeli, as we shall see, who



DISRAELI AND VICTORIA

extended the vote to the factory workers. Disraeli also was successful in his foreign policy. It was he, for instance, who bought the shares in the Suez Canal which gave Britain control of that great waterway.

Queen Victoria worked well with both her great prime ministers. By this time, it was understood that a British monarch should be above parties, and

should not take sides in politics. But the queen was a person of strong opinions, and she could not help liking Disraeli better than his great rival. 'Dizzy', as his supporters affectionately called him, was so tactful and helpful that it was a pleasure to listen to him. He talked to her as if she were not only a queen but a woman, while Gladstone, she once said, talked to her as if she were a public meeting.

(c) **Parliamentary Reform Brings Democracy.** In 1832, when the first Reform Bill was passed, many of its Whig supporters said that it should be the end of parliamentary reform and that they did not want any further democratic changes. The Chartists' demand for the vote was turned down very soon after, as we have seen. The progress of democracy could not be stopped, however, and by the 1860's many began to feel that the vote should be given to more people. Disraeli thought this was a good chance for the Conservatives to show that they were in favour of democratic change, and he succeeded in persuading his party, which was then in power, to pass the Reform Act of 1867. This gave the vote to all householders and lodgers in towns, and tenant farmers. This was a very big step towards political democracy, and people who were fearful of it called it 'a leap in the dark'.

A few years later, however, it was felt that the vote should be extended still further, and this time it was Gladstone's ministry

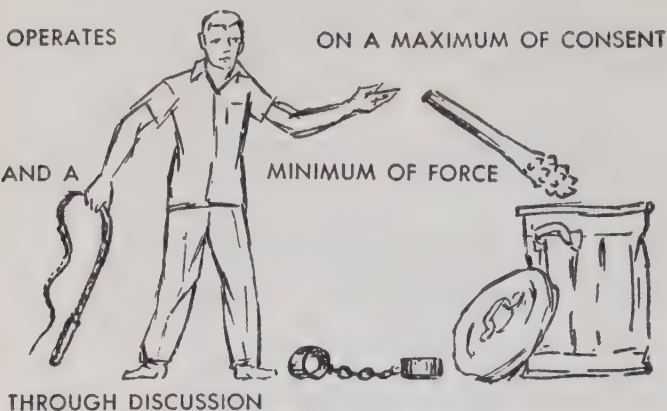
that brought in the Reform Act of 1884 giving the vote to agricultural labourers.

Women still did not have the vote, and whenever the idea of them getting it was mentioned in the nineteenth century, it was laughed at. Early in the twentieth century, however, some very determined women began to organize, and these 'suffragettes' as they were called were soon making so much trouble that the government scarcely knew what to do. They organized processions and did all sorts of odd things such as pouring tar in letter boxes or chaining themselves to seats in theatres and then shouting 'votes for women' till they had to be carried out, seats and all.

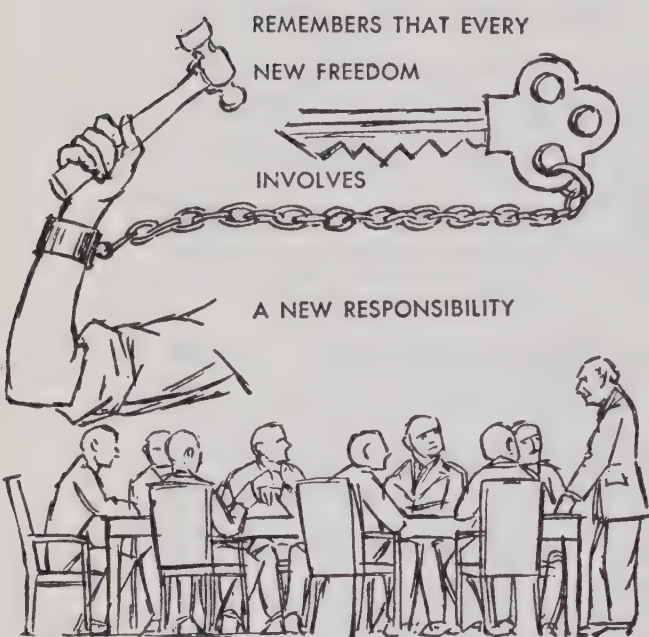
Suffragettes were in the midst of all this when the First World War broke out in 1914, and then they called a truce so as to help in war work of all kinds. This really settled the question, for the patriotic work of women was so great during the war that it was felt at the end that they must be given the vote. Here we are going past the limit of this chapter, 1914—but just to round out this subject, we may note that in 1918 there was a fourth Reform Bill which gave the vote not only to all men of twenty-one or over, if they had not already had it, but also to all women of thirty and over. Ten years later the voting age for women was lowered to twenty-one, and so at last Britain had a completely democratic system of voting for national and local elections, and for men and women both.

One other important parliamentary change took place shortly before the First World War, and that was the limiting of the power of the House of Lords. This came because the House of Lords had been blocking measures that the House of Commons wanted. Bitter feeling resulted, and finally in 1911 the Parliament Act was passed which said that Money or Taxing Bills passed by the House of Commons would become law whether the House of Lords consented or not. In all other matters the Lords could only delay laws for two years, and if such laws were passed by the House of Commons during three sessions, they were to be signed by the king and become law without the consent of the Lords. The House of Lords can thus delay, but it cannot block, the House

A DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT



AND COMPROMISE,



AND THAT ITS MINISTERS ARE SERVANTS OF ITS PEOPLE,

SUBJECT TO REMOVAL



of Commons. It is interesting to know that the Parliament Act was passed by the House of Lords because the king agreed to create four hundred new peers if necessary to pass the Bill.

With the Parliament Act and the extension of the vote to everyone twenty-one years and over, Britain now had one of the most democratic systems of government in the world—a system which had been developing step by step for centuries.

(d) **Lasting Contributions of Nineteenth-Century Britain.** Two great developments took place in nineteenth-century Britain which affected not only the people of Britain but also of many other countries, including Canada. One, which we shall look at again in the next unit, was the development of machinery. At the beginning of the nineteenth century steam engines were just being introduced into factories, and there were still no steamships or railway trains. At the end of the century, steam engines were being used everywhere, electricity had come in, and inventions of all kinds had completely changed the methods of manufacturing. In this Industrial Revolution, as it is

A DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT

called, Britain led the world in the nineteenth century.

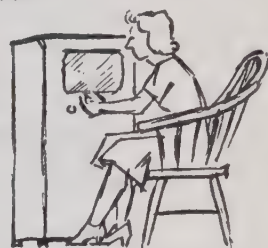
The other great development was the growth of democracy. With the Reform Bill of 1832, as we have seen in this chapter, a democratic revolution began which in less than a century made Parliament depend on the great mass of the British people, and not on a small minority as it had done for centuries. These two Revolutions were really connected. The Industrial Revolution built up cities and created a great mass of workers who had to be educated and given the vote. All this encouraged many other changes. Local government had to be improved, workers had to be protected by the Factory Acts and many other later laws. Thus the democratic revolution included not only the extension of the vote, but a great number of other reforms which improved the condition of the mass of the people and have become an important part of our life in the twentieth century. If you study the pictograms on pages 138 and 139, you will see some of the things that democratic government stands for, and that will help you to understand the meaning of the word 'democracy'.



ADOPTS THE WILL OF THE MAJORITY



AND SEES
TO IT THAT



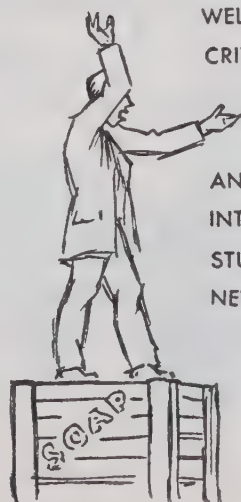
THE MAJORITY IS WELL INFORMED,



GRANTS
TO MINORITIES
THE
RIGHT
TO BE DIFFERENT.

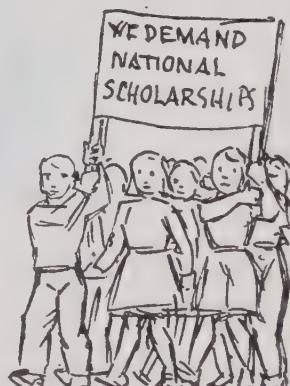


PRACTISES RACIAL, RELIGIOUS AND CLASS TOLERANCE,



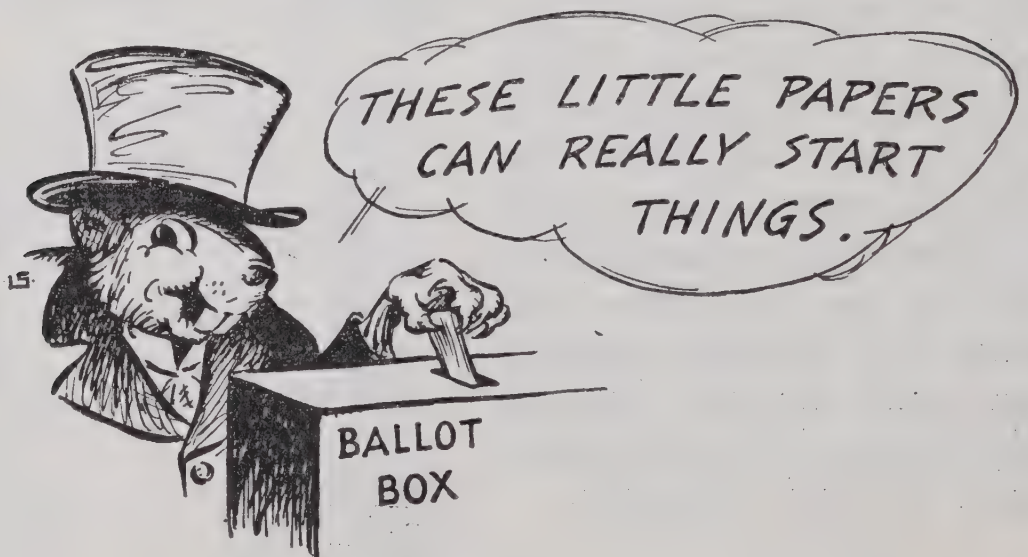
WELCOMES
CRITICISM

AND
INTELLIGENTLY
STUDIES
NEW IDEAS



(e) **The End of the Victorian Age.** When Queen Victoria died in 1901, the twentieth century was just beginning; and, although the beginning of a century makes no difference in the course of events, people were right in feeling that an age was coming to an end. We have already noticed examples of change, such as the Parliament Act, which came a few years after the Queen's death, but even before the end of her reign there were others. Among them were the demands for new laws to protect people from the unhappy effects of such things as accident, illness, or unemployment. These and other Social Security measures, as we call them, were to be adopted during the twentieth century. There were also demands that the government should move in the direction of socialism by taking over control of such things as the important industries and railways, and in 1906 a new political party, the Labour Party, was formed which had as one of its principal objects the bringing in of socialism. In the next twenty-five years the Labour Party replaced the Liberal Party as one of the two chief political parties in Britain. These and many other changes showed that a new period was beginning.

Just when the Victorian age ended it is hard to say. Some might choose 1901, when the Queen died, as the best date. But certainly it could not be later than 1914. In that year the First World War began and with it Britain was swept into a stream of events which carried her far beyond the Victorian age and into a new era.



Learn by Doing

1. Make posters illustrating what was meant by 'pocket' boroughs and 'rotten' boroughs. (1, a)
2. Conduct an imaginary interview with Sir Robert Walpole. (1, b)
3. Three committees outline briefly how successfully they feel the 'Unreformed' Parliament solved the three great crises which arose in the last half of the eighteenth century. (1, c)
4. Write a newspaper article outlining the need for giving more people the right to vote. (2, a)
5. Have a panel discussion on the problem of the slave trade. (2, b)
6. The demands of the Chartists were considered to be ridiculous in 1838. Discuss them and give your views on them now. (3, a)
7. Two committees search out information proving that Disraeli and Gladstone were great men. (3, b)

Facts to Know

1. In what ways is our system of voting better than that used about 1700?
2. Why was William Pitt considered such a great man? (1, c)
3. (a) How did the Factory and Mines Acts affect the employment of children? (2, b)
(b) How does the Municipal Reform Act affect each community today? (2, b)
4. Why was the reign of Queen Victoria considered to be so very unusual? (3)
5. What new groups of people obtained the vote in 1867 and 1884? (3, c)
6. In the nineteenth century, Parliament, not the king, ruled. In what respect does that affect us in Canada today?

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UNIT SIX

BRITAIN AND OUR MACHINE AGE

1. *Britain without Machines*
2. *The Change to Machines*
3. *How Machines Changed Agriculture*
4. *The Change in Communications*
5. *The Industrial Revolution Continues*
6. *Problems Raised by the Industrial Revolution*

We are now living in an age of machines and speed. In this century machinery has changed life so much on the farm, in the factory and in the home that in many ways it has been revolutionized. Farming has ceased to be merely hard work, although there is still plenty of work to be done before the earth brings forth 'our daily bread'. Machines are used to prepare the land for planting, to seed it, and to harvest the crops. Spraying machines are used to keep down weeds, and to control pests. Machines are used for milking. Numerous other machines, and especially the tractor, have shortened the hours of heavy toil which used to be necessary, and in many areas lighting and power by electricity have brought changes which could scarcely have been imagined a century ago.

Machines have also changed the occupations of people. Most people during Canada's early days made their living from the land. Now more than half our population lives in towns and cities, and many Canadians are busy in factories which produce articles not only for sale at home but for export to distant parts of the world. With machines each worker can now produce far more than one person could do before the days of steam power and electricity. Thus the amount of goods produced is far larger, and they can be carried far greater distances to people who can use them. We think nothing of getting articles of food and other things from distant places, and we almost take for granted the miracles of transportation which make this possible.

These miracles, including the telegraph, wireless, and now television, have almost destroyed distance. They have brought far distant places close together and made them dependent on one another, so that the world is tied together as it never was before, and this of course has both advantages and disadvantages.

In this machine age, which has brought about such remark-



ARE WE COMING TO THIS?

able changes, Britain was the pioneer. It was in the eighteenth century that these changes began. Machines began to replace handwork in manufacturing. Water power and then steam power were developed. Factories sprang up, towns and cities grew. Advances in transportation and communications began to appear, and inventions of all kinds increased. These great changes and their influence are called the Industrial Revolution, and that Revolution has continued to the present day. From Britain it spread to other countries, and so it has influenced the entire world.

To see what the Machine Age meant to Britain, however, let us first look quickly at the country before these changes took place.

1. Britain without Machines

From earliest times most of the British people gained their living by farming, but if we could go into the English countryside before the Industrial Revolution, say even in the early eighteenth century, we should see something very different from the farms of today. Instead of farms, each with its farmer, we should find manors each with a little village at its centre. The finest house would be that of the lord or squire who originally held the manor according to the feudal system. There would also be a little church in the village and probably a mill by a stream. The other houses—most of them very small and some little better than pigsties—would be for the tenants and day labourers who worked the fields. Around the village were usually three large fields for crops and beyond them pasture land and woodland where the villagers could keep their animals or fowl. This 'open-field system', in fact, dated back to the Middle Ages, and did not alter much for centuries.

In medieval times this system was practised most widely, so let us look at it then. Each field was divided into strips separated by narrow lines of turf called balks. The strips were usually 15 or 20



THE OPEN FIELD SYSTEM

yards in width and a furlong in length (a furlong, 220 yards, is really a 'furrow long', the straight distance before the plough turns and rests to let the oxen get their breath). Each tenant who had land would have several strips scattered in each field, and the lord's land would be scattered in the same way though he might have more of his own in a separate enclosure. Usually one field was sowed to wheat, another to oats, peas, beans, or barley, and the third, if there was a third, was left fallow. Next year the crops would be changed or rotated. Each field was cultivated by all the villagers working together, so that no one who wanted to be different could do what he wished with his strips. Each tenant owed a certain amount of work to the lord and that is the way the lord got his land cultivated.

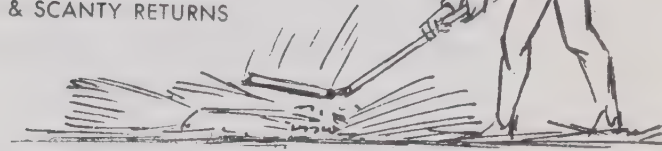
Among the things which would strike a modern observer would be: (1) The slowness of the work with simple hand tools and oxen. Ploughing was a long job with six or eight oxen and a heavy wood plough, and at harvest it took about five people with sickles or scythes to harvest two acres a day. (2) The smallness of the crops. The yield of wheat per acre in medieval England,

for example, was about one-third of what it is today. (3) The isolation of the village from the outside world. With poor roads and the lack of such things as newspapers, radio, and railways, days or weeks might pass without the village learning much of what was going on anywhere else. Moreover, since the people made their own clothing and grew their own food, they got practically nothing from other places. The lord might buy some luxuries from the nearest town or from London, but such things were beyond the common people. Even the smallest village now has its grocery shop, but then the markets or fairs were few and far between and the roads impassable for months in the winter.

There were all kinds of other results, too numerous to mention, from the three points mentioned above. For example, there was not enough food to keep many cattle during the winter so most of them were killed and their meat salted down. Fresh meat was a luxury and milk even more so. There was no sugar, honey was the common sweetener. If the village could



& SCANTY RETURNS



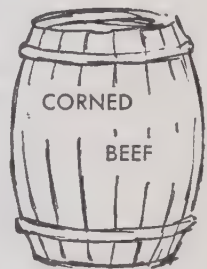
RARE CONTACT WITH THE OUTSIDE WORLD



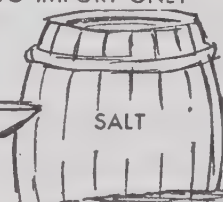
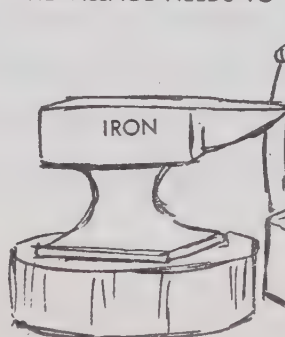
A NEARLY SELF-SUFFICIENT ECONOMY



MILK AND
FRESH MEAT
ARE LUXURIES

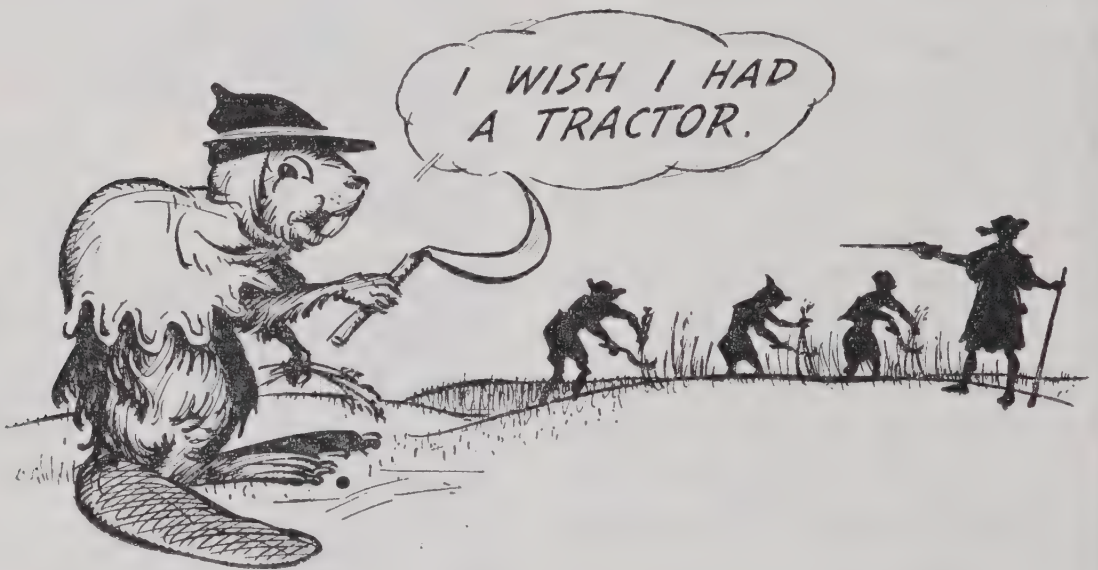


THE VILLAGE NEEDS TO IMPORT ONLY



get some iron for the blacksmith to make horseshoes, sickles, and knives, enough salt to keep its meat through the winter, and mill-stones to grind the corn, it needed little else.

As time passed 'enclosed' farms developed here and there; that is, the land was under the control of one person who put a fence or more likely a hedge around it, and cultivated it as he pleased, as a modern farmer would do. Enclosing land, however, usually meant that villagers lost the strips they had farmed to a richer or more powerful man (often the lord or squire) and they became only labourers on his fields. There were many enclosures in the



sixteenth century, especially to build up sheep-farms, since England had become a great wool-growing country. But much land still remained in open fields.

The towns were as different from those of today as was the countryside. The streets were unpaved and narrow and littered with garbage. There were, of course, shops of many kinds, and inns, but no factories. All kinds of things were made, but all of them by hand, and the nearest thing to a factory was the shop, probably also the home, of the master craftsman who had a few hired workmen and apprentices. Candles were the only light, and people worked from dawn to dark.

Travel was slow, difficult, and often dangerous. The roads were

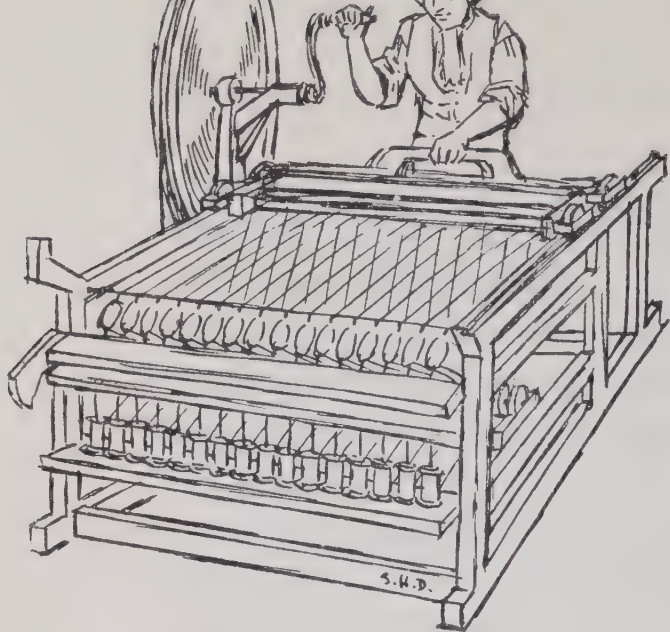
not kept up, so that in bad weather they were no more than a succession of mud holes. Riding and walking were the best ways of getting along and goods were carried by pack horses; carriages were few, and being made without springs they were most uncomfortable. Robbers often lay in wait for the travellers in forests and lonely places. Transportation and travel by water were far easier than by land.

Although life was hard, the people were, for the most part, content. They had their holidays, their games, and good times. Machines and gadgets do not necessarily make people happy, though sometimes we seem to think so. Like the people of Britain before the Industrial Revolution, we still have to find happiness within ourselves and with our friends. We have, however, advantages such as protection against sickness, and comforts and pleasures of which they never dreamed.

2. The Change to Machines

It was in the eighteenth century that the great change to machines in manufacturing began. England's overseas trade to her colonies and to foreign countries was expanding rapidly, and faster production was needed. Britain's home market was also growing. The craftsmen in the towns and the hand workers in their cottages could not supply the demand, especially for cloth. Exporters also were not satisfied with the uneven quality of the cloth, so there was a great pressure for improvement, and a remarkable series of inventions began to speed up spinning and weaving.

The first of these inventions was the 'flying shuttle', made by John Kay in 1733. It would weave cloth twice as wide as the old loom and in less time. The really rapid changes began, however, a little later. In 1765, the 'spinning-jenny' was invented which made it possible to spin eight, and later one hundred,

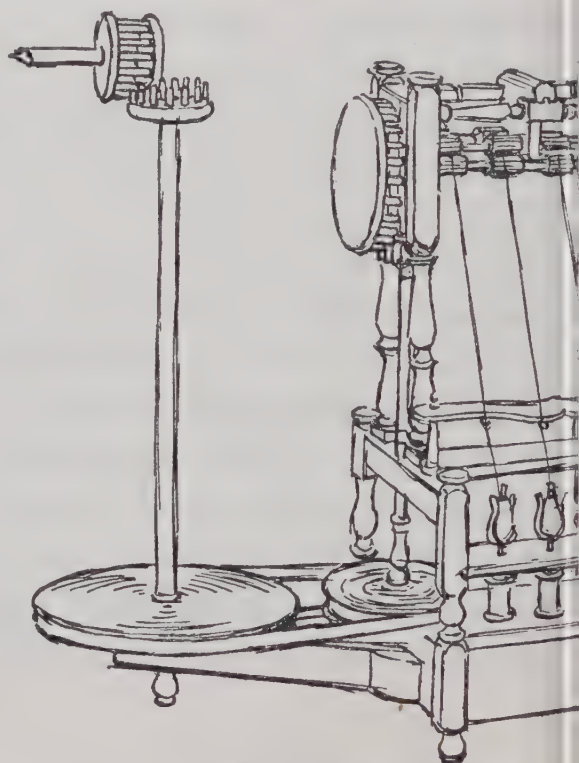


THE SPINNING-JENNY

Other inventions came rapidly. By the end of the eighteenth century factories were common and, as well as men, women and children were working in them. Spinning and weaving were no longer done in the home by hand, but by power-driven machines in factories. The Industrial Revolution was well on its way in the making of textiles.

To run real factories full of machines, power was necessary. At first water-power was used, but a big change came with the introduction of the steam engine. As early as 1705, a man named Newcomen made a workable steam engine that could be used to pump out water that had settled in mine shafts, but it was very slow and could only push a pump, not run a wheel or a machine. The great developer of the steam engine was James Watt who in 1782 made an engine with a continuous motion which could be made to run a wheel or a factory machine. The old story that Watt got his idea when looking at a steaming tea kettle seems to

threads on one machine. It was soon followed by the bigger 'water-frame' which was driven by water-power, a most important change as it encouraged spinning in factories instead of the people's homes. Then came the 'mule' which used the ideas of both the spinning-jenny and water-frame and produced a finer and stronger thread, so that it was possible for the first time to produce fine muslin in England.



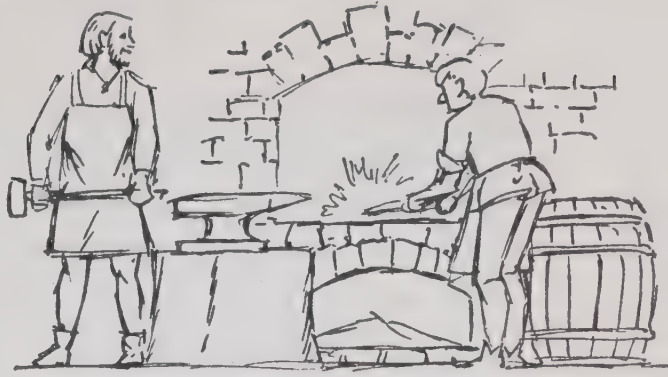
THE WATER FRAME

COAL, IRON & STEAM POWER

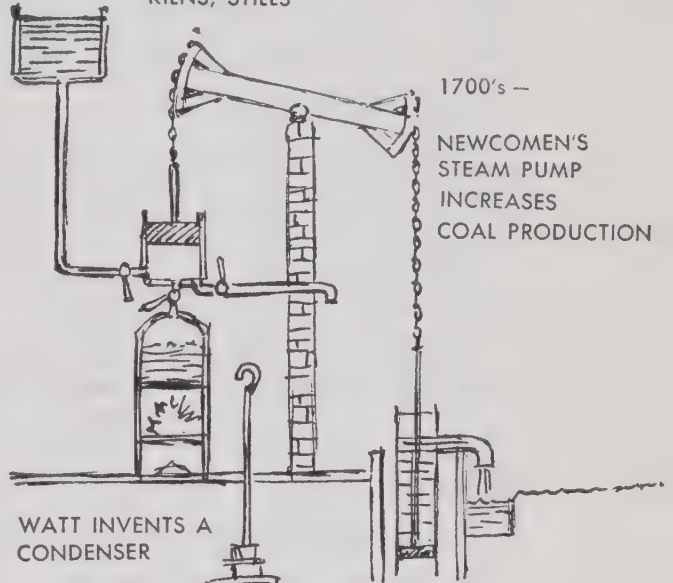
have little truth in it. He was a skilled instrument maker and he worked over his inventions for many years. His first important improvement over Newcomen's engine was made thirteen years before his famous engine of 1782.

Steam was the magic answer to the need for power. For the first time in the world's history man had power which he could make quickly and cheaply and use anywhere. Steam was soon driving not only textile machinery but many other kinds of machines as well, for instance, rolling mills for the manufacture of iron plates and rails. It made deeper mining possible. In the next century it was to drive horseless carriages and propel ships through the sea. Later were to come electricity and the gasoline engine, but they only continued the revolution started by steam. Steam became the genie of the Industrial Revolution, and like the genie let out of the bottle in the fairy story it was to bring problems as well as advantages.

During the eighteenth century many other changes were taking place, and especially in the use of iron and coal, both of which England had in great quantities. Improvements in making iron, which was very necessary for

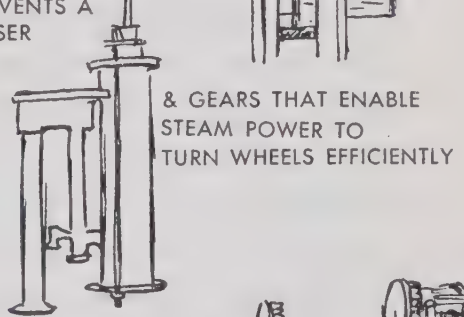


1600's — MORE IRON & COAL NEEDED FOR SMITHIES, KILNS, STILLS



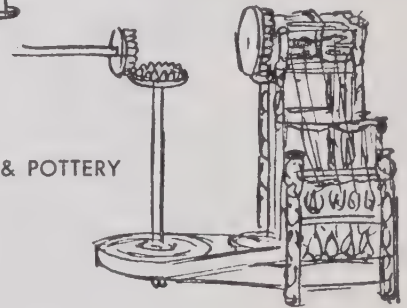
1700's —
NEWCOMEN'S
STEAM PUMP
INCREASES
COAL PRODUCTION

WATT INVENTS A
CONDENSER

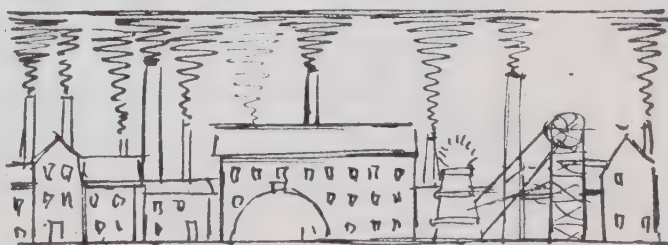


& GEARS THAT ENABLE
STEAM POWER TO
TURN WHEELS EFFICIENTLY

NEW TECHNIQUES
& INVENTIONS IN
SPINNING, WEAVING & POTTERY



CHANGE ENGLAND
INTO AN INDUSTRIAL NATION



WITH A GIGANTIC HUNGER FOR MORE COAL,
MORE IRON, MORE —

machines and steam engines, began early in the century when Abraham Darby found a new fuel for smelting iron ore. Charcoal, made from wood, had been used, but wood was needed to build ships for the navy, and ships were more important than iron at that time. Darby tried coke made from coal and found it was cheaper and made better iron than charcoal. A great improvement came later in the century when a special furnace was invented, called the puddling furnace, which produced a purer iron that could be bent and worked more easily than the cast iron previously made.

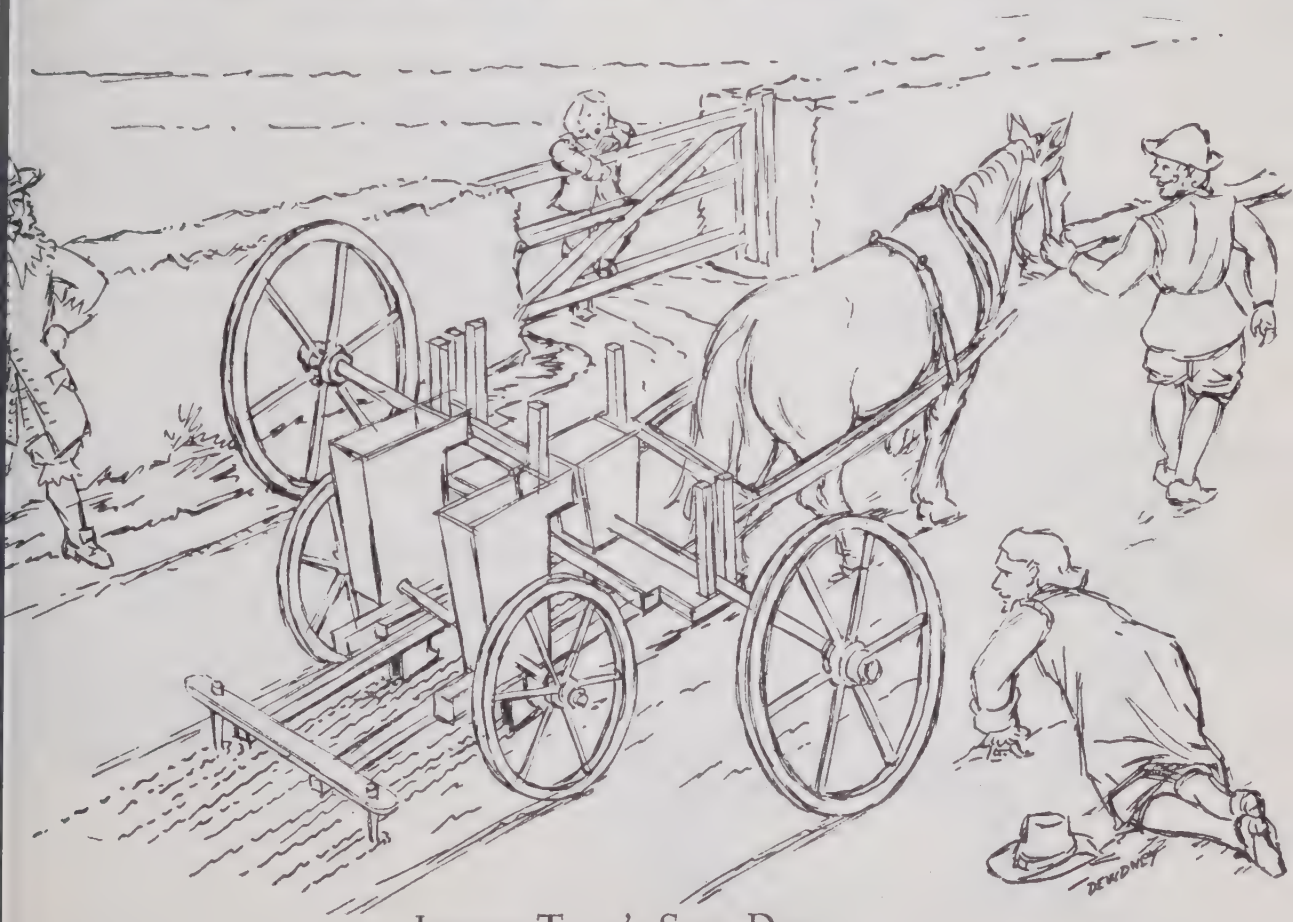
The smelting of iron and the steam engine depended on coal for fuel. Mining, therefore, was steadily extended because of the increasing needs of the Machine Age. Many new mines were opened, and industries were set up near coal fields. Early in the nineteenth century England was selling quantities of iron and coal to other countries. An important invention for coal mining was a new safety lamp made by Sir Humphry Davy in 1815, which helped to prevent explosions from gases in mines.

By the beginning of the nineteenth century, then, the Industrial Revolution was well started in England. The use of steam, iron, and coal was developing by leaps and bounds, the factory system was expanding, and Britain was leading the world in this new industrial age. But we should not forget the dark side to all this progress, for many of the new industrial towns had terrible living conditions, and reforms soon were badly needed.

Among the interesting things connected with the Industrial Revolution are the stories of the men who became famous for their contributions to it. For example, there was Richard Arkwright, the inventor of the water frame, who started out as a travelling barber and ended up as Sir Richard, sheriff of his county. None had a more interesting story than Josiah Wedgwood (1730-1795), whose name is known for beautiful chinaware to the present day. Wedgwood came of a notable family of potters in Staffordshire, a county famous for its pottery. In the early eighteenth century, however, the well-to-do used pewter dishes, and the common people used wooden ones. Wedgwood as a young

man determined that he would make china dishes more beautiful and also cheaper and more practical than had ever been made before. He wanted them uniform in size and quality so that plates could be piled without toppling over, lids would fit, spouts would pour properly, and handles would not break off easily.

With tremendous care and patience, he began experimenting with all kinds of mixtures of clay and all sorts of ways of improving the methods of manufacture. He brought in machinery, to use factory methods of mass production as far as he could, though there was still a great deal of handwork especially in the most artistic products. The results were surprising. In only a few years Wedgwood's china was known all over the western world. In 1774 he sold Empress Catherine of Russia two dinner sets of 952 pieces of his famous cream-coloured ware, each piece decorated with a different English scene, the whole costing over £2000. Wedgwood, however, was much more than a china maker. He busied himself with improving roads, with the building of the Trent and Mersey canal, and with the construction of schools and chapels. Among all the men who became well known in the Industrial Revolution,



JETHRO TULL'S SEED DRILL

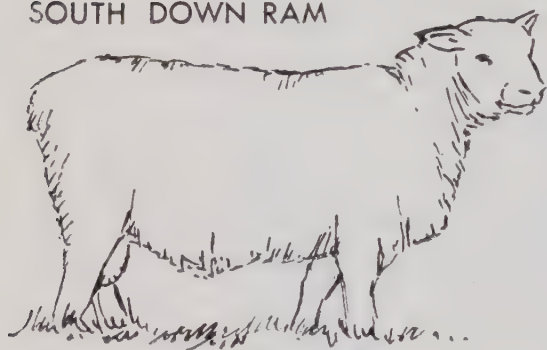


LONGHORN BULL



YORKSHIRE SOW

SOUTH DOWN RAM



AYRSHIRE COW



he is one of the most attractive. On his tombstone at Stoke, it says that he "converted a rude and inconsiderable manufactory into an elegant art and an important part of national commerce".

3. How Machines Changed Agriculture

While a revolution was taking place in manufacturing, great changes were also occurring in agriculture. One may almost say that modern scientific agriculture began in eighteenth-century Britain. With towns increasing, more food was needed. The old three-field system and backward farming methods were no longer good enough. There was also a growing interest in scientific studies, and some of the landowners began to turn their attention to new ideas and experiments.

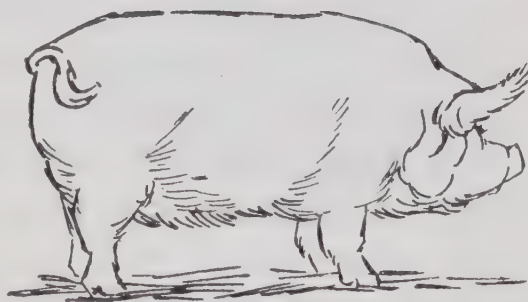
One of the first improvements was made by Jethro Tull who invented a seed drill, which planted seeds in a straight line at an even depth. This was a great improvement over the old method of scattering seed by hand. When the plants were set in

straight lines, the land could be more easily cultivated, and Tull invented a cultivating machine which could be drawn by a horse. He also urged that turnips and clover be planted in fields instead of leaving them fallow to 'rest' every third year, and thought that this changing or 'rotating' of crops did far more to keep the soil fertile. Tull wrote a book, *Horse-Hoeing Husbandry* and his ideas spread rapidly. Large landowners followed them and began to make experiments of their own. One of these men, the brother-in-law of Walpole, Lord Townshend, had great success with crop rotation by using turnips, so that he got the nickname of Turnip Townshend.

With the growing of root crops and clover there was more food for cattle. Larger numbers could be kept through the winter and people began to eat fresh, instead of salted, meat all year round. A great interest soon arose in the better breeding of stock. Robert Bakewell was one of those who became famous as a stock breeder. The Countess of Oxford once referred to him as the Mr. Bakewell who invented sheep. Due to his Leicester breed of sheep England



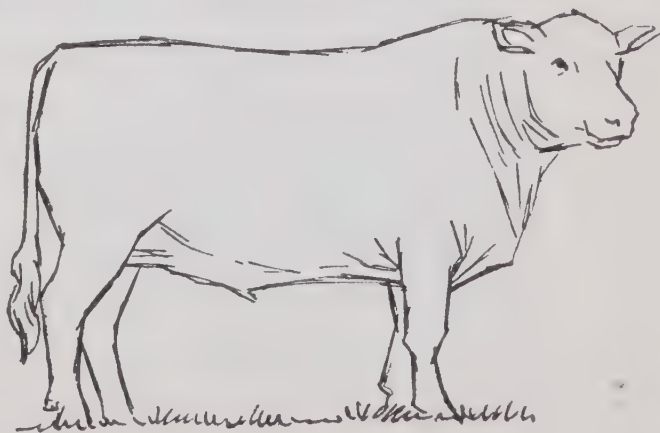
SHORTHORN BULL



BERKSHIRE BOAR



LEICESTER RAM



ABERDEEN-ANGUS BULL

is said to have had two pounds of mutton after Bakewell's work for every pound it had had before. In fifty years this breed of sheep spread to Europe and America. As for cattle, at the beginning of the eighteenth century they were used mostly as oxen, and they have been described as rawboned, wall-sided, good only for pulling carts, and wandering through mudholes. But by the end of the century they too were specially bred. They were used for meat and had doubled in size. As the demand for pure-bred livestock continued, Britain became famous for such breeds as Shorthorn, Hereford, Aberdeen-Angus, Guernsey and Jersey cattle—as well as Clydesdale horses, and various breeds of sheep and hogs.

Along with these improvements in the growing of new crops and stock breeding, there were many other improvements in such things as fertilizing and draining waste land. Many men who made money out of trade or manufacturing invested it in land and became interested in the new agriculture.

With the improved methods of farming, the demand for enclosures became very great because the new methods could not be used with the old system of two or three common fields divided into strips. In thousands of villages, therefore, Parliament was asked to have the land divided so that instead of the former strips each person, whether he be lord or tenant, would get his land in one piece so that he could enclose it with a fence or hedge and do with it as he pleased. By the early nineteenth century the old manorial system had almost disappeared. The English countryside was now made up of fields enclosed by hedges, and agriculture generally had been greatly improved.

Unfortunately enclosures usually worked out badly for the poorer tenants. Many of them lost their rights in the common pasture and woodland, and the bit of land they received was not enough to support them, so they became day labourers or drifted away to seek work in the new factory towns. Suffering and distress all too often became the lot of the 'landless labourer', and the country village slowly ceased to be the common centre of life in England. Britain was growing stronger and wealthier through the modern progress in manufacturing and agriculture. The new

methods in agriculture, for example, made a tremendous contribution to feeding Britain when Napoleon tried to blockade and starve her. But at the same time the progress was very hard on many of her poorer people who lost their land or their work, and by the early nineteenth century their suffering raised a serious problem for the nation to face.

4. The Change in Communications

Few changes in our modern world are more important than the speeding up of communications, not only in carrying goods and people, but in carrying news and ideas. This change has been most rapid in the twentieth century with the invention of the automobile, the aeroplane, and radio. It began, however, in the last half of the eighteenth century. As industries grew in Britain the old ways of transportation by road could not handle the raw materials and manufactured goods. There had been prac-

1. MIDDLE AGES



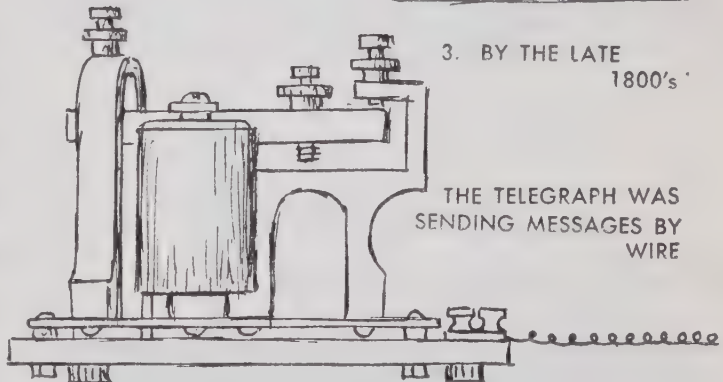
2. IN THE 1700's -



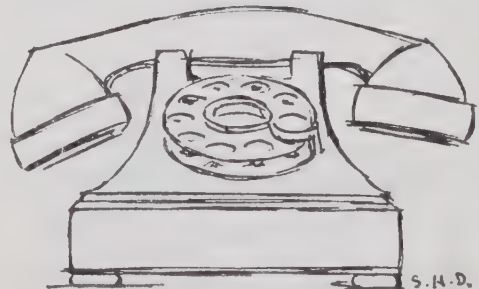
THE KING'S MAIL CHARGED POSTAGE BY THE MILE, BUT FINALLY ADOPTED THE PENNY POST



3. BY THE LATE 1800's -



AND THE TELEPHONE WAS INVENTED



4. TODAY RADIO & TELEVISION CARRY MESSAGES THROUGH THE AIR WITHOUT WIRES

tically no road building since Roman times, and most of the roads were no better than tracks over the fields, full of holes, and almost impassable in bad weather. In 1760 there was a coach only once a month from London to Edinburgh and the journey took about sixteen days. Until 1784 mail was carried by boys on horseback. Then began a coach service for mail from London to different important points. These coaches kept up a speed of ten miles an hour night and day, and went from London to Edinburgh in less than two days. What more could be asked?

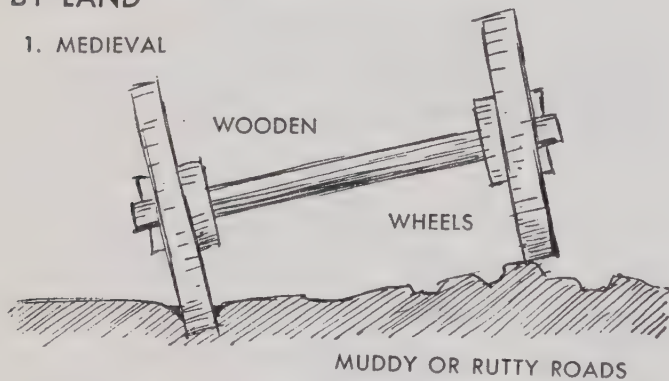
In 1773 an Act was passed providing for the proper upkeep of all roads, and during the next fifty years over 20,000 miles of main roads, and 100,000 miles of local roads were built. This

was the beginning of Britain's modern road system. Two engineers were largely responsible for the ideas of construction, Thomas Telford and John Macadam, and their roads built with a base of crushed stones came to be known as macadamized roads.

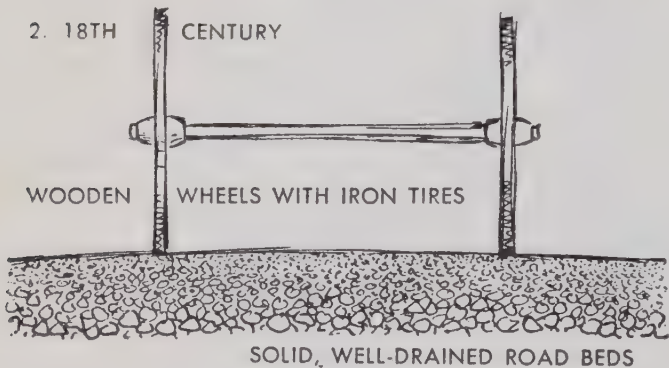
More exciting to the people of the time was the building of canals. England is well suited to inland water transport, and some of the rivers had been improved early in the eighteenth century, but when the first canal was begun by the Duke of Bridgewater in 1759 it was laughed at and called 'Bridgewater's Folly'. He persisted, however, because he wanted to connect coal deposits which he owned in Worsley to Manchester, 29 miles away. Fortun-

CHANGES IN TRANSPORTATION BY LAND

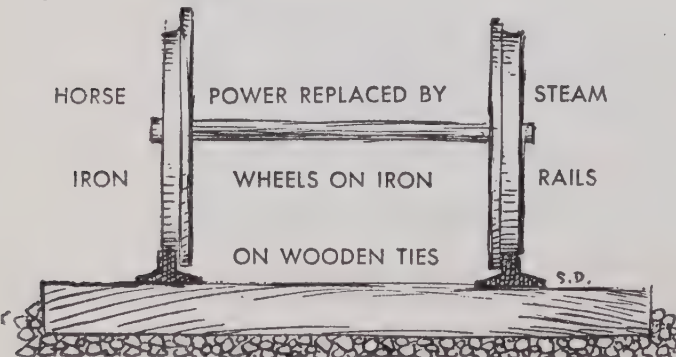
1. MEDIEVAL



2. 18TH CENTURY



3. 19TH CENTURY

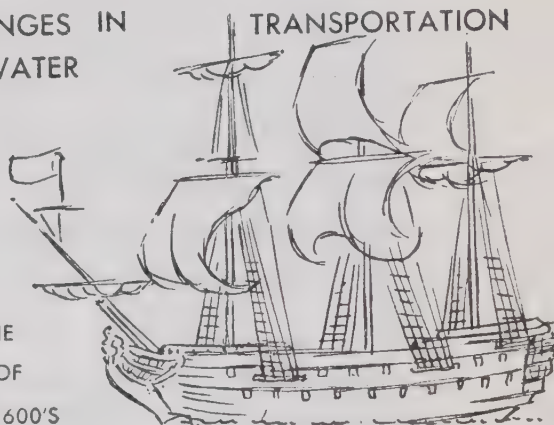


ately he had a millwright, James Brindley, who worked out all the difficult problems, and, when the canal was opened after two years, it was a tremendous success. Within thirty years there were nearly three thousand miles of inland waterways in England, and canal building still went on until there was a network of waterways over the country. They had a very great effect. The cost of transportation went down to about a quarter of what it had been, trade increased enormously, and new towns and factories grew up in many places, especially in the Midland counties. The inland waterways are still important in English commerce.

Some new and faster method of transportation was needed, however, and early in the nineteenth century various people began experimenting with steam power to pull carriages on roads or on rails. A great deal of argument about railways also began, and there was strong opposition from owners of canals and owners of coaches and toll roads. People wanted to know how locomotives would get up hill (some thought ropes would have to be used to pull them up), or how they could stop if going down hill, or what they would do if a cow got in the way. As late as 1835, one writer doubted if women especially would endure "the fatigue, the misery, and danger of being dragged through the air at the rate of 20 miles an hour, all their lives at the mercy of a tin pipe, or a copper boiler, or a pebble in the line of way". While some of this talk was ridiculous, it was not all as silly as it sounds, for never before had

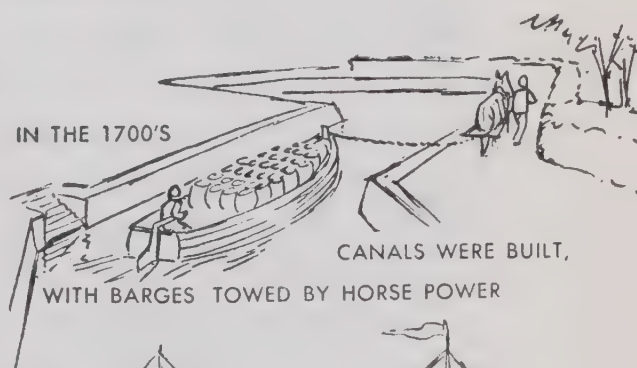
CHANGES IN TRANSPORTATION BY WATER

TO THE
END OF
THE 1600'S

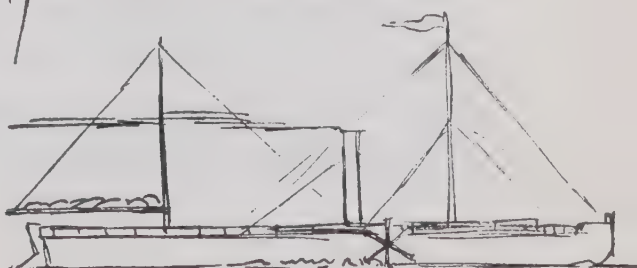


WATER TRANSPORT DEPENDED ON WINDS, CURRENTS
& MAN POWER

IN THE 1700'S



CANALS WERE BUILT,
WITH BARGES TOWED BY HORSE POWER



EARLY IN THE 1800'S STEAM POWER BROUGHT
IN A NEW ERA IN WATER TRANSPORT

people been dragged around by machines hissing and clattering and belching out clouds of steam and smoke. The most famous early locomotive was George Stephenson's *Rocket* which, in 1829, won a competition for locomotives and was then used on a line between Liverpool and Manchester. It had a maximum speed of about 30 miles an hour.

After 1835 railways came in rapidly and in the next 20 years several thousand miles were built. Railways became popular as people began to travel for pleasure as well as business. At first there were several hundred companies with short lines, but after the middle of the century these began to join up into longer lines and by the 1870's Britain had a railway network much like that of today. This not only increased trade and travel enormously, but ended the old isolation of the rural areas. England was a pioneer in railways, and from the British Isles their use spread to other parts of the world.

Meanwhile experiments with steamships were going on in Canada and the United States as well as in Britain. By the 1820's small steamers driven by paddlewheels were running on the St. Lawrence and other rivers, and there was even thought of using them to cross the ocean. The first ship to cross the Atlantic using steam all the way was the Canadian-built *Royal William*, and not long afterwards Samuel Cunard of Halifax got the idea of using steamships to carry passengers and mail on regular trips across the Atlantic. The British government became interested, and in 1839 Cunard's famous company was founded with its headquarters in England. Another interesting event in this period was the building in 1843 of the first iron ship for ocean travel, the *Great Britain* of Bristol. She also was fitted with the new screw propeller instead of paddle wheels. By the 1840's British shipping was also entering the machine age.

More rapid and cheaper communication of news and ideas was also needed. People were moving about as never before in search of work or were migrating overseas, and they wanted to keep in touch with their relatives and friends. The old method



THE Royal William

of sending letters, by which the receiver paid for the letter in money, was expensive and slow, and this brought about one of the simplest and greatest inventions of the nineteenth century. In 1839 Rowland Hill, after years of effort persuaded Parliament to bring in postage stamps. The results were remarkable. Business men found the new system helpful, mail increased enormously, and soon the postage stamp came into use in every civilized country.

Inventions to carry ideas over wires now appeared. In 1837 Wheatstone in England and Samuel Morse, in the United States, both experimented with the telegraph, and it was soon being used to connect towns and cities. Then came submarine telegraphs, and finally after several unsuccessful attempts a cable across the Atlantic. Messages could now be sent in an instant, and not many years later the telephone also was invented. Thus in the nineteenth century the first great advances were made in rapid communication, and the nations of the world were brought into close contact, as they had never been before.

A few dates will illustrate some of these rapid changes in communication:

1784—Mail first carried in England by regular stage coach.

1809—The first Canadian steamboat built, the *Accommodation*.

1829—George Stephenson's *Rocket* locomotive in England.

1833—The *Royal William* crosses the Atlantic.

1836—First Canadian railway opened.

1837-1844—Morse develops the electric telegraph in the United States.

1839—Rowland Hill's penny postage adopted in England.

1848—The first St. Lawrence deepening scheme completed.

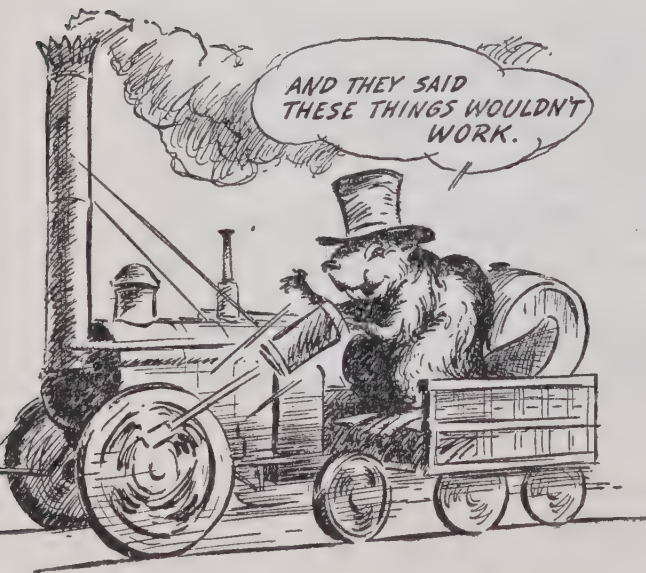
1851—The first submarine telegraph.

1852—Cable laid between New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island.

1866—The first successful Atlantic cable.

1876—First words over telephone by Alexander Graham Bell at Brantford, Ontario.

All these changes were of tremendous importance to Britain and the British Empire. The Empire was growing rapidly in population and trade, and yet its scattered parts were now brought closer together than ever by steam and electricity. Since Britain was the first country to experience the Industrial Revolution, she built up a vast world trade. British shipping expanded, and it grew even larger as steam gradually replaced sails. British investments also grew. From her industries, her trade and her shipping, Britain had money to invest, and in the nineteenth century it was invested almost all over the world. Many millions of dollars helped to build Canadian railways, for example. Thus the Industrial Revolution made nineteenth-century Britain a world centre of industry and finance.



5. The Industrial Revolution Continues

The Industrial Revolution has continued on into the twentieth century and up to the present day.

As thousands of inventions were made, more and more industries were affected and new industries were created. Factories became larger, and more and more was done by machine. In the twentieth century automatic machines have been developed in many industries which can do very difficult operations at high speed without handwork at all, like the great newspaper presses which are fed by a large roll of newsprint at one end and turn out thousands of papers a few minutes later, all folded and printed, sometimes in several colours.

Two new sources of power were also developed which had a tremendous effect in the first half of the twentieth century—electricity and the internal-combustion engine. In Britain the dynamos producing electricity have been driven mostly by steam, and in Canada by falling water. In either case electricity has been a miracle worker. It has provided artificial lighting, driven motors and machines in factories, speeded up transportation on street-railways and railway lines, provided energy for very complicated methods of smelting and refining minerals, and also for radio, television, and dozens of machines on farms, in offices, and homes. The internal-combustion engine has had almost as many uses. It made possible millions of trucks and cars on the roads, and thousands of aeroplanes in the sky, and it has been used to run nearly everything from a lawnmower to the heaviest diesel-engine trains.

As the second half of the twentieth century began, a third new source of power was just appearing, atomic energy, with possibilities as unknown as were those of electricity a century earlier.

One of the most important features of the Industrial Revolution in the twentieth century has been the use of science. Through chemistry, for example, new methods and new products have been discovered, such as the making of dyes from coal, the making of rayon and other textiles, artificial refrigeration, photography, plastics, and so forth. So successful has been the use of science, that governments and many industries regularly carry on scientific research, for instance, in Canada through such organizations as

the National Research Council and the Ontario Research Foundation. In agriculture science has also made great changes. Plants have been improved, new plants developed, and diseases of plants and animals studied, so that many of our fruits, flowers and vegetables differ considerably from those of a century ago.

In the amazing advances of the Industrial Revolution, Britain held her own in many fields; but as the revolution spread to other countries, she ceased in the twentieth century to be the workshop of the world. For example, in 1870 Britain produced more iron and coal than all the rest of the world; by 1910, although her output was much greater, she produced only 26% of the coal and 14% of the iron used. As European countries developed their manufactures, Britain's market in Europe declined. However, her merchants and traders found new markets in the Empire, Africa, South America, and China during the latter part of the nineteenth century. But even these markets were not sure because other growing industrial nations, such as Germany, Belgium, the United States, and Japan were selling their goods abroad too.

Britain's position thus became less secure in the twentieth century. With an increasing population to feed and to keep employed, she depended more and more on imports of food and raw materials from other countries. Trade was necessary to give steady employment, and trade overseas was often cut down by competition. Moreover, Britain's great naval power could no longer give full protection all over the world through her trade and her ships. Britain's population increased in the nineteenth century from about 10,000,000 to 40,000,000, and the islands did not contain enough arable land and natural resources to support such a population. If, in a major war, the sea routes were closed, the situation would be most serious; and, as we shall see later, this is what happened.

The remarkable advances in communication had a good effect upon the Empire however. By cable news and messages could travel in an instant around the world, and by steamship leaders from all parts of the Empire could come together easily

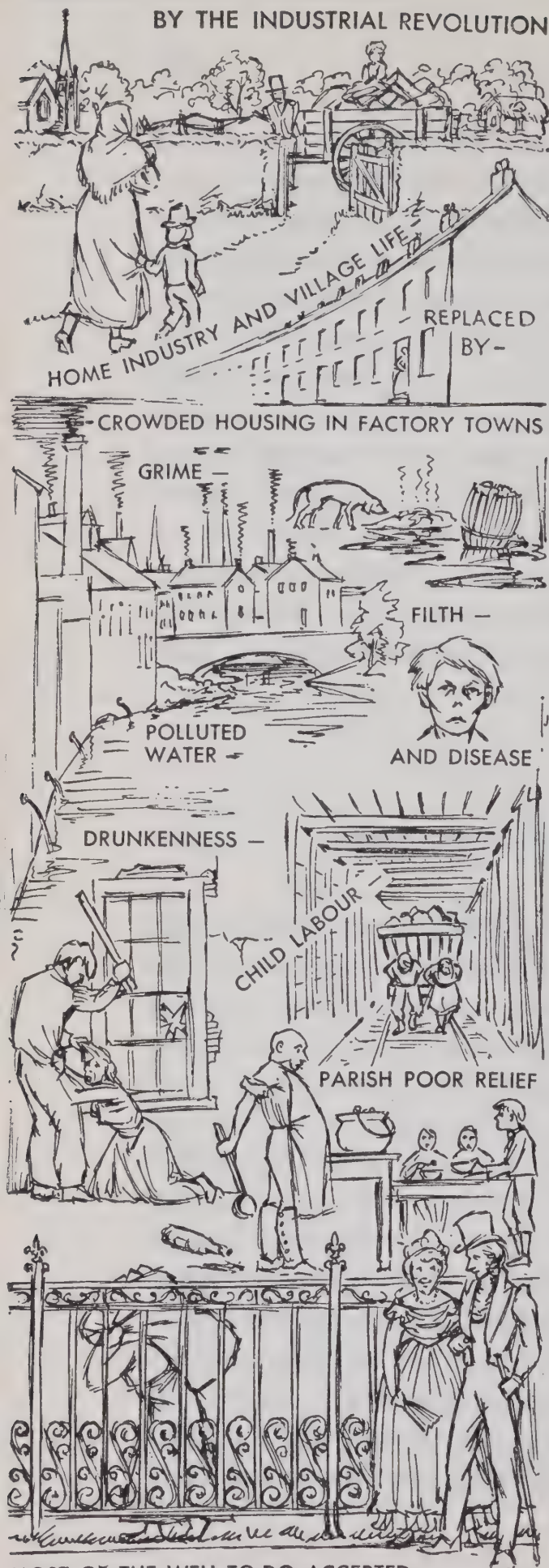
and quickly. Before the days of electricity and steam it took months for letters or people to go back and forth. When Queen Victoria celebrated the Diamond Jubilee of her reign in 1897, leaders came from all parts of the Empire and news of the celebration was cabled to every continent. These closer associations produced greater understanding and more friendly relations. What this meant to the Empire was clearly shown when the First World War broke out in 1914, and Britain and the Dominions were able to act quickly together. Since that time communications have been still further speeded up. The oceans have been spanned by aeroplanes, telephone and radio. Today, the peoples of the Commonwealth everywhere can be thrilled by the modern miracle of radio announcing: "This is London calling, Her Majesty the Queen". We wonder what Elizabeth I would have thought of that!

6. Problems Raised by the Industrial Revolution

Even when they bring progress, rapid changes always create problems, and this was very true of the Industrial Revolution. Many people, such as the 'cottagers', of the eighteenth century were put out of work by the new machines. These people had made a little money from spinning and weaving in their cottages but now factories and new inventions like the power loom took these small earnings away. Thousands were forced into the new factory towns, which grew rapidly without planning or thought for the people who lived and worked in them. Dwellings were long rows of drab tenement houses where families were crowded together. Pure drinking water, sewage and garbage disposal were not provided; filth and dirt became breeders of disease. Smoke and grime were everywhere.

In the early days of the Industrial Revolution, there was no regulation of the conditions of work. Men, women, and children

PROBLEMS CREATED IN BRITAIN BY THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION



from the age of six spent long hours of ceaseless toil for very small wages. The machines in factories lacked safety devices, and accidents were very common. Nothing was done for the safety and health of the workers. Mines were dark, wet, and unhealthy. Men, women and children toiled in the darkness in cramped positions. Women carried baskets of coal up sets of ladders to the surface. Children pulled and pushed small carts of coal along low tunnels. As the day ended, people wearily returned to their drab homes. Sunday was the only day of relief from drudgery.

Workers were entirely dependent on their employers for wages and employment. When workers became ill or old, they had nothing to depend on except perhaps a little poor relief from the parish. With so many mothers working, home and family life were destroyed. Children and young people roamed the streets looking for amusement or excitement. Adults crowded into taverns to drink themselves into stupidity with gin, a cheap liquor in that time. What an unhappy contrast to the country village of Tudor times! Little wonder that many people lost their independent spirit, pride in coun-

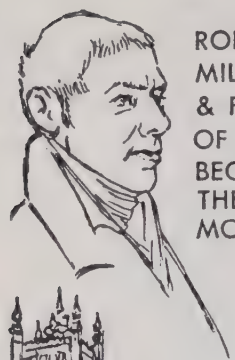
try, and hope for the future, as well as their faith; and the well-to-do were generally ignorant of the unhappy fate of the poor. Such were the evil effects brought in by the Industrial Revolution.

At first no one felt responsible for these conditions, but in the early nineteenth century, as we have already noticed in Unit Five, reforms of various kinds began in spite of opposition. Many cruel laws and punishments were done away with, and even some factory owners began to see that something should be done for their workers. Robert Owen was the greatest of these. He built a model factory and village with decent homes for his workers. He shortened the hours, increased wages and refused to hire children, insisting that they should attend school. Contrary to the expectations of other owners, Owen made profits, but few followed his example, and he urged that Parliament should take responsibility for protecting the workers.

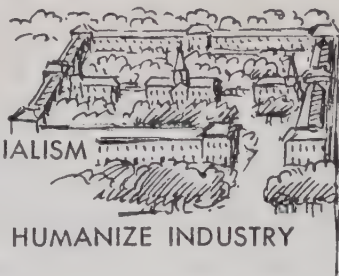
Parliament was very slow, however, in taking over this new duty. There was very strong feeling that Parliament should not interfere with the way in which men controlled their business. But gradually it became clear that Parliament must pass some laws to protect the citizens against abuses. Early in the nineteenth century, acts were passed to prohibit the employment of very young children, and to protect orphans and other children who were hired as 'apprentices' but were little better than slaves. These acts were largely useless because Parliament provided no means for enforcing them. Then Lord Shaftesbury and other reformers became active, and real improvement began. The Factory Act of 1833 and the Mines Act of 1842 provided that government inspectors should visit factories and mines to see that the Acts were enforced, and women and children were now forbidden to work in mines. These Acts were followed by many others. Slowly Parliament established standards for working conditions in factories, mines, shops and office buildings. Such laws are now accepted, and are changed from time to time to meet changing conditions.

Public health and housing gradually also became the concern

BRITAIN ATTACKS THE PROBLEMS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

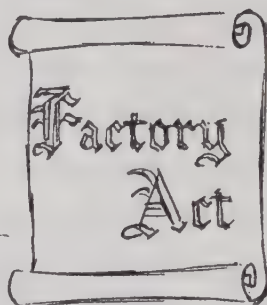


ROBERT OWEN,
MILL OWNER,
& FATHER
OF BRITISH SOCIALISM
BEGAN
THE
MOVEMENT TO HUMANIZE INDUSTRY



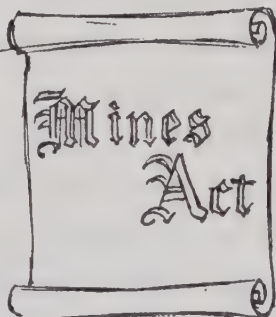
PARLIAMENT ACTS —

1833 -



INSPECTORS
SAW THAT
NEW LAWS WERE OBEYED

1842



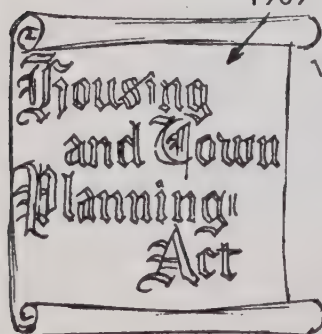
1848 — NATIONAL
BOARD OF HEALTH



FROM 1824 —
LAWS AGAINST
LABOUR UNIONS
WERE RELAXED

1875 — REGULATIONS
FOR SANITATION,
CONTROL OF INFECTIOUS
DISEASES, MED. HEALTH
OFFICERS

1909

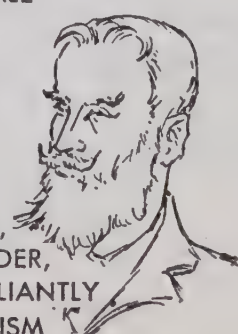


1844 —
1st
CO-OP
AT
ROCHDALE



1889 —
FABIAN
SOCIETY
BRAINS OF
LABOUR
PARTY

G. B. SHAW,
A CO-FOUNDER,
WROTE BRILLIANTLY
FOR SOCIALISM



of Parliament, since it was clear that filth and dreadful living quarters caused disease and misery. In 1848, Parliament passed a law to set up a National Board of Health which could create local Boards of Health with great powers. These Boards set to work to clean up the disgusting sanitary conditions. By 1875 action became nation-wide as Parliament made regulations for sewage disposal, water supply and control of infectious diseases. Every district had to appoint a medical health officer. In the twentieth century disease has been combatted by vaccination, inoculations, and the amazing development of medical science. Housing was a more difficult problem and progress was slow. Local councils were granted authority to stop the construction of additional bad slums, and in 1909 the Housing and Town Planning Act gave local councils power to control all building projects. Large sums were spent, but the rapid growth of Britain's population and cities made it impossible to catch up with the housing problem.

The growth of trade unions was one of the great developments of the Industrial Revolution. The first unions were organized in protest against undesirable working and living conditions. During the Napoleonic Wars, unions were made unlawful, and members could be punished by fines or imprisonment. After 1824 unions ceased to be illegal and grew rapidly. Workers tried to influence Parliament through Chartism but failed. Then they tried to improve conditions by forming strong unions. These unions collected dues to build up funds for insurance schemes, and, if necessary, to carry on strikes for better pay or shorter hours of work. The unions also tried to increase wages through agreements with employers. At the same time workers organized co-operative societies to lower the cost of living by buying foodstuffs and clothing wholesale, and selling them direct to the members of the societies. These efforts were very successful and the 'co-op' societies grew rapidly.

The vigour of unionism had a great influence on the passing of laws to improve working and living conditions. The unions had much to do with winning the vote for workers, and just at the beginning of the twentieth century a Labour Party was organized, as we have already seen.

By the twentieth century opinion concerning the problems caused by the Industrial Revolution had greatly changed. It was now generally believed that Parliament should protect the welfare of citizens, but there was still great difference of opinion as to how far Parliament should go in doing this.

Between 1900 and 1914 a Liberal cabinet was in power, which introduced many new measures. The law of 1909 was passed to improve housing conditions. Unemployment and sickness insurance were brought in. Minimum standards for wages and working conditions were established. Educational opportunities were improved. To pay for such services the richer part of the community was heavily taxed. Thus the income of the nation was redistributed to the advantage of the workers. Large numbers of government officials had to be appointed to look after the new

services. The duties of the state were greatly increased, and the free action of citizens, especially in business, was limited.

This trend continued after 1914, but the question still remains as to how far Parliament should go. Some people fear that too much state action to provide security for citizens will lead to deadly loss of individual freedom, and that this will lead to regimentation, that is, the state regulating everything. Some hope that the state will take on duties to look after citizens 'from the cradle to the grave'. Others claim that the state should own and operate for the benefit of citizens all means of production and distribution, which would be socialism. Still others feel that state controls will lead to some political party seizing power, refusing to have free elections, and establishing dictatorial government. These difficult questions have faced many nations in the twentieth century, but no nation is better fitted to solve them than Britain with her long traditions of self-government, her respect for the rule of law, and her love of individual freedom. As long as these ideals continue in the minds and hearts of the people, they are a sure protection against state control going too far.

Machines may make problems; people must solve them.

Learn by Doing

1. Have the pupils discuss the machines being used by their fathers today. List these along with the work done by each.
2. Make a sand-table display showing the three field agricultural system on one half and the modern arrangement on the other half. (1 and 3)
3. A family discusses their new life under the factory system as compared with life when goods were made in the home. (2 and 6)
4. Make a mural showing improvements in transportation and communication. (4)
5. People often try to justify their beliefs without bothering to get the true facts. Read the reasons people used for opposing the railroads. Can you find examples of weak arguments used by people today to prove their point? (4)
6. Have ten pupils each make a brief report on an invention or discovery which has taken place in the last fifteen years. Doctors, druggists, manufacturers, farmers, and others may be interviewed for information.
7. Write a report for a newspaper that Robert Owen might have written, encouraging employers to treat their workers fairly. (6)
8. As a summary of this Unit have committees report and prepare blackboard summaries of the improvement in Britain in agriculture, manufacturing, transportation and communication.
9. Write to manufacturers of new materials for information about their products.

Facts to Know

1. Match the following improvements made with the man responsible for each. (2 and 3)

John Kay	steam engine
James Watt	seed drill
Humphry Davy	flying shuttle
Jethro Tull	Leicester sheep
Robert Bakewell	paved road
John Macadam	safety lamp

2. In a sentence or two, tell in what way each of the first steps led to the second.
 - (a) The invention of machines led to factories.
 - (b) The building of factories led to shifts of population.
 - (c) The necessity for power developed mining.
 - (d) Factory life led to unhappiness in many families.
3. Write a paragraph describing in what way farmers in Canada today benefit from the improvements in agriculture made during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. (3)
4. State two ways in which improvements were made in (a) transportation, (b) communication. (4)
5. Describe ways in which new inventions and discoveries are affecting life in Canada today. (5)
6. Name three problems created by the Industrial Revolution and indicate some of the ways by which these problems were overcome. (6)

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UNIT SEVEN

THE STREAM OF BRITISH CULTURE

1. *The English Language and Literature*
2. *Education*
3. *Religion and the Churches*
4. *The Arts*
5. *Sports and Games*

Have you ever wondered what you would take with you if you were a pioneer setting out on a long journey to a new land? From the days of Cartier and Champlain, Canada has had pioneers from many countries and they all faced that problem. How anxiously before starting they must have picked out the few things they could take with them: choosing this, leaving that—and then regretfully leaving behind more and more until at last they put into their precious bundles only the things they simply could not do without.

But were these treasured objects really all they carried with them? What about their language, their songs, their memories, their ways of doing things, their religion, their ideas of government, and a hundred other such things. These took no room at

all, and yet they were the most valuable and lasting things the pioneer took with him, for these are the things which make up a people's character, or, as we usually say, a people's culture. In three small provinces of northern Spain live the Basques, whose language and many of whose customs are so ancient and so unlike those of their neighbours that no one can tell where they came from. This Basque culture has survived for centuries in spite of every difficulty, and this is only one of many remarkable illustrations showing how strong and lasting may be the culture of even a small people.

Look at the drawing on the end-papers of this book. A good way to think of a people's culture is to compare it to a stream. Starting far back in the people's earliest history, its sources are perhaps lost to view. Soon, however, we can see some of its beginnings in the early history of the people's language, or in their folk songs, or poetry, or early forms of government. As we come down toward our own day, we can see many interesting things happening to the stream. At different points it widens and deepens as the people's literature, art, music, architecture, games, and many other things in their daily life develop. Everyone adds to the stream, even the thousands of people whose names are forgotten. Each adds his drop. But the great leaders are like the big tributaries flowing in and broadening the stream so that it is never the same again. This is what Shakespeare, for instance, meant to English culture. His influence was one of the mightiest tributaries of all. Then also at many points tributaries big and little flow in from other lands, like the musician Handel who came from German Hanover in the eighteenth century, or like the Normans almost seven hundred years earlier who followed William the Conqueror across the Channel, bringing a tremendous French influence which affected almost everything in England. Let us not forget too that, like a real stream, the stream of culture is affected by geography. A country's situation, or its resources, or climate may encourage or discourage the growth of its culture, though just how or why is not always easy to say.

Tibet, high and remote in the Himalayas, changed little for centuries. England, 'set in the silver sea' as Shakespeare said, but close to Europe, and with her ships sailing the world's oceans, has never ceased to change, almost from year to year.

The stream of English culture is very long. For two thousand years it can be traced back and countless tributaries have flowed into it. Still, we can get a bird's eye view of it, and let us imagine that we are doing so. Only the biggest tributaries will be visible in our bird's eye view; but even the few things that we can notice will show us how the river has broadened and changed through the centuries. Before we begin, however, it will help us if we keep in mind the river's main divisions and a few important milestones which we have already seen in earlier chapters.

The first division about which we know anything clearly was Roman Britain. For almost four hundred years, until the last Roman soldiers left in 407, England was a Roman province. Then came conquering bands of German tribes, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and the Anglo-Saxon period began. It lasted for over six hundred years until it was ended in 1066 by the Norman Conquest. With this great milestone began another period of four centuries or so, the Middle Ages—or perhaps the Feudal Age would be a better term. No one year can be named for the end of the Middle Ages, but by 1500 so many changes were appearing that it is clear that another period was beginning. We may call this the age of the Renaissance in England. Renaissance means re-birth, and in our bird's eye view we shall see some of the changes which led to the use of this name. The river of English culture was broadened and deepened enormously by the Renaissance, and the remarkable reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603) is a great milestone in this period and in the whole of English history—if we can think of a milestone forty-five years long!

The Renaissance is usually thought of as the beginning of modern times: feudalism declined in that period, the power of the great nobles and armoured knights decreased, gunpowder

began to be used, castles and moats and drawbridges gave way to growing towns with their merchants and shops, and even quieter changes that have had a tremendous influence in our modern world took place, like the invention and spread of printing, and the beginnings of modern science. No definite year can be named as the end of the Renaissance, since most of what started then is still important. For convenience, however, we may think of the Renaissance as ending with the seventeenth century. Then came what we may call the Aristocratic England of the eighteenth century, and the Democratic England of the nineteenth century.

What about our own day? Has the twentieth century with its marvellous inventions ushered in a new period? Some people think so, and we often hear the expression 'the Atomic Age' to describe the world into which we seem to be moving. We cannot tell, however, just what is happening or how rapidly the stream of culture is changing, and this has always been so when people are watching the changes going on around them. Sometimes the quietest and most gradual changes which attract little attention at the time are the ones which make the greatest difference in the long run.

1. The English Language and Literature

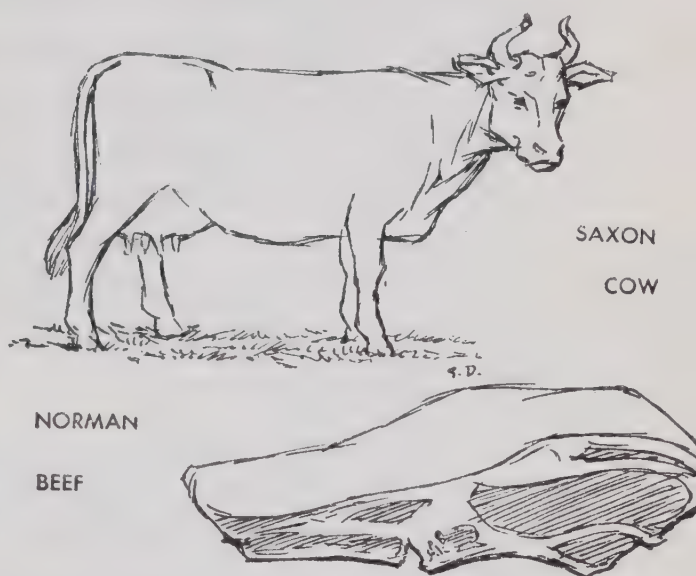
One of the most important and interesting ways of seeing how the stream of English culture has broadened and deepened through the centuries is to look at the growth of the English language, which is spoken today, it is said, by over three hundred million people spread around the world.

In Roman Britain there was no English. The Roman conquerors, of course, spoke Latin and no doubt in the four hundred years while they were there Latin became widespread. But the common people kept their own Celtic languages, which survived especially in Wales, Scotland and Ireland, so that we still have

Welsh and Gaelic spoken in our own day. When the Romans left Britain, Latin apparently died out as a common language though it remained as the language of the church and in the monasteries, and the greatest book written in the Anglo-Saxon period, a history of the English people by the famous scholar and churchman Bede (673-735), was in Latin.

The common speech, however, became that of the Anglo-Saxon conquerors, and from this during the Anglo-Saxon period there gradually developed an English language. This early English was so different from ours that we could not understand it. Nevertheless it was the real foundation of the modern English language. Alfred the Great, who is famous for fighting off the Danes and burning the housewife's cakes, is justly famous also for his efforts to educate his people and to get books translated into English. He has been called the founder of English prose literature, and his influence added greatly to the stream of English culture.

Then in 1066 came the Norman Conquest. Again the speech of the common people took second place. For over two centuries French became the language of court and nobles and was taught in the monastery schools. But the common English speech would not die out, and by the fourteenth century it was overcoming the French. Before it did so, however, large numbers of words were taken over from the French, and this greatly enriched the English language. For instance, from the French *parler*, to speak, we get parliament, parley, and several other words. Cow and sheep remained as the names of the animals, but from the French came beef and mutton to describe the foods. And so it was with hundreds of other interesting examples which a dictionary will show.



Into this situation when the English language was growing and winning its way, there came a most important influence, the writing of Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400), one of the greatest English poets. Chaucer, who was educated as a page at court and was sent on several important journeys to European countries, knew French thoroughly, but he decided to write his greatest poems in English. This tremendously encouraged the use of English, but, more than that, Chaucer chose out of the several forms or dialects of English, that spoken around London, and so he helped to make it the language of the whole country. Chaucer's English is not exactly like ours. Many words and spellings are different, but still we can read it without too great difficulty and recognize that it is true English and far nearer our own than the old Anglo-Saxon. We can get an interesting illustration of this if we compare the following forms of a well known verse in the New Testament. The first is in Anglo-Saxon of about 995, the second is in the English of Chaucer's day four hundred years later, and the third is from the King James version of the Bible published in 1611:

Tha cwaeth he to his leorning-cnithum,
Unvihtlic is thaet gedrefendnyssa ne cumon;
wa tham the hig thurh cumath.

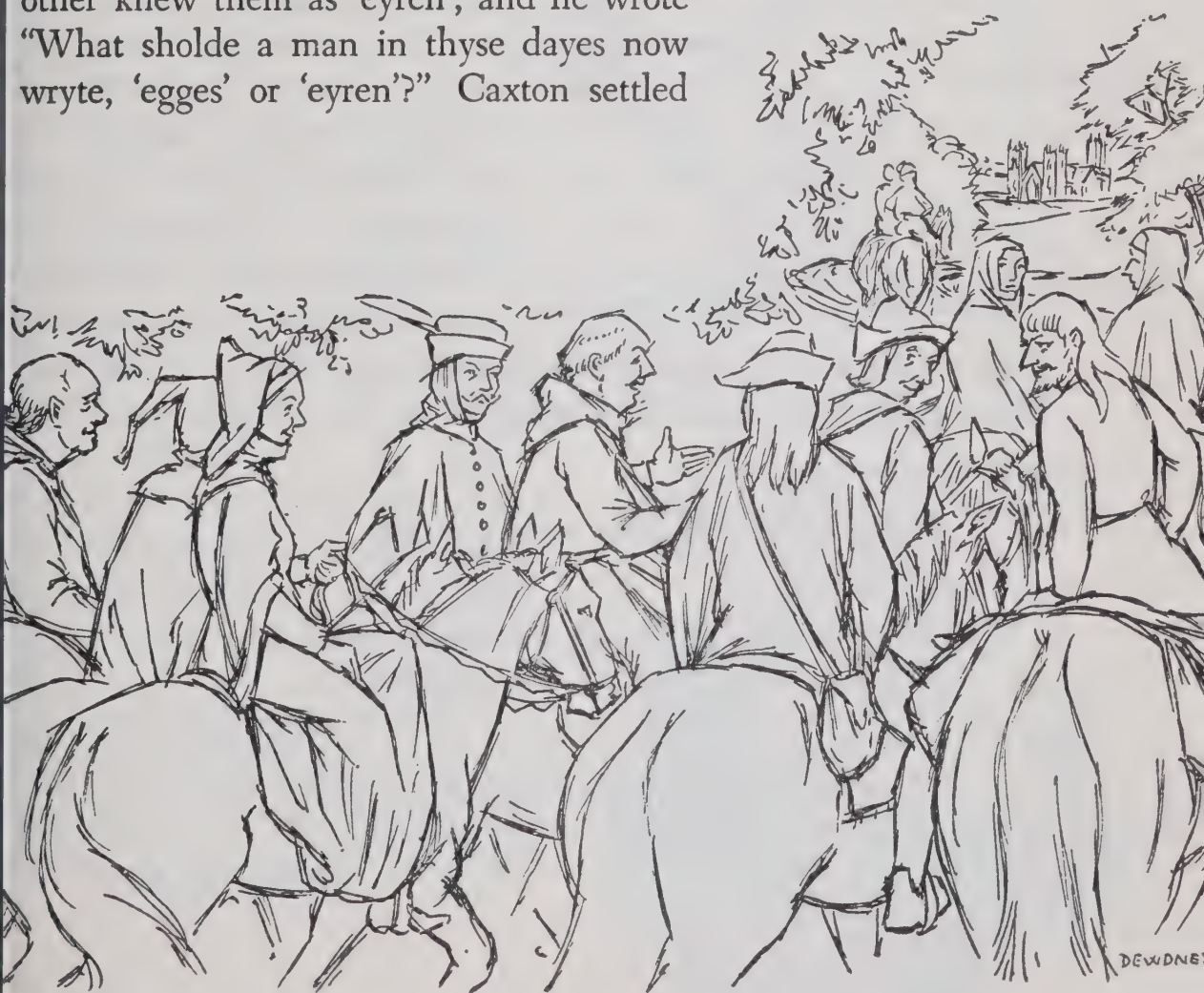
And he seide to his disciplis, It is impossible that
sclaundris come not; but woe to him,
by whom thei comen.

Then said He unto His disciples, It is im-
possible but that offences will come; but woe
unto him, through whom they come!

Chaucer's greatest poem, the *Canterbury Tales*, which gives us a wonderful picture of the England of his day, is about an imaginary group of thirty-three pilgrims on their way to Canterbury. Almost every kind of person is represented—priest, lawyer, merchant, miller, knight, nun, housewife—and the tales are amusing with many clever descriptions. Chaucer was buried in West-

minster Abbey, and later other poets were buried near him in what came to be known as the Poets' Corner.

Less than a century after Chaucer's death came the next great contribution to English language and literature in the form of the introduction of printing. The man responsible for this was William Caxton (1422-1491), a successful merchant whose hobby was books and who lived for thirty years in the Netherlands. Here he learned about printing and printed the first books ever done in English, among them *The Game and Playe of Chesse*. Shortly after, in 1477, Caxton brought his press to England, and set it up near Westminster Abbey. In the fourteen years before his death he printed nearly one hundred books. He did a very great work in helping to settle the form of English. There were still several dialects. He tells about a misunderstanding of two people from different parts of England because one asked for 'egges' and the other knew them as 'eyren', and he wrote "What sholde a man in thyse dayes now wryte, 'egges' or 'eyren'?" Caxton settled



THE CANTERBURY PILGRIMS

many such things and his printed books helped greatly to fix the form of modern English.

Caxton died in 1491, the year before Columbus discovered America, and already the Renaissance was coming to England. Printing was one of the reasons for it. With more books, more people learned to read, and writers were encouraged. By Queen Elizabeth's time a great change along these lines had taken place, and in her reign there was one of the most remarkable groups of writers to be found in any country or at any time—the poet Spenser who wrote *The Faerie Queene*, the dramatists Christopher Marlowe, and Ben Jonson who wrote *Drink to me only with thine eyes*, and many others. England of that time has been called a

nest of singing birds. Most famous was William Shakespeare (1564-1616), who is usually thought to be the world's greatest poet and dramatist, and in spite of all changes his plays continue to be read and played in every generation. In the history of English language and literature Shakespeare's influence has

been second only to that of the King James version of the Bible. The number of familiar lines written by him is almost countless, such as:

To be or not to be: that is the question:

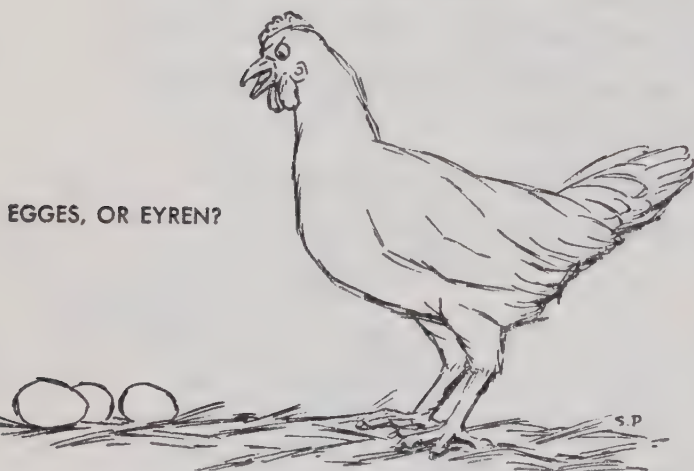
Hamlet

How far that little candle throws his beams!
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.

Merchant of Venice

Cowards die many times before their deaths;
The valiant never taste of death but once.

Julius Caesar



For there was never yet a philosopher
That could endure the toothache patiently.

Much Ado About Nothing

The King James translation of the Bible has already been mentioned twice; and, aside from its religious influence, it has without doubt had a greater influence than any other book on the English language and literature. James I followed Queen Elizabeth I, and soon after he came to the throne he arranged to have a new translation of the Bible made by the best scholars in the country. It was published in 1611. There have been a number of other English translations of the Bible both before and since, but none that has been printed in so many millions of copies or has had such an influence. Its beautiful, simple and musical language is still a model after more than three hundred years.

In the very years when the King James Bible was being prepared, John Milton (1608-1674), the greatest poet of the seventeenth century, was born. Next to Shakespeare he is usually thought to be the greatest English poet. Milton was a fine scholar and lover of music as well as a poet, and we may perhaps think of him as the last of the great Renaissance writers in England. He was also a Puritan and a deeply religious man. In his later years he went blind, and it was after that in the midst of unhappiness and darkness that he wrote his greatest poem *Paradise Lost* which tells in majestic verse the story of the angels who fell from Heaven. It was intended by Milton to justify the ways of God to man. Milton also wrote a very famous prose work with the strange name of *Areopagitica*, from the Greek word for an oration to the Areopagus, the ancient Council of Athens. In the *Areopagitica* he argued for the right to think and write and publish one's opinions freely, and this pamphlet is probably the most famous plea ever

WHEN WILL THEY INVENT
THE PRINTING PRESS?



THE MULTIPLICATION OF BOOKS

IN THE MIDDLE AGES BOOKS WERE

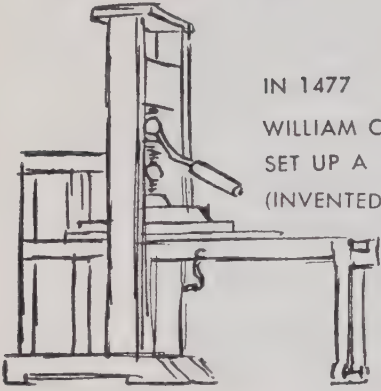
WRITTEN BY HAND
AND
WERE
PRIZED
POSSESSIONS



IN 1477

WILLIAM CAXTON
SET UP A PRINTING PRESS
(INVENTED IN GERMANY)

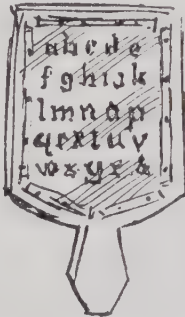
IN ENGLAND



IN THE 17TH CENTURY

CHILDREN LEARNED

THEIR ABC'S FROM HORN BOOKS



IN THE 18TH CENTURY

NEWSPAPERS AND

PUBLIC LIBRARIES APPEARED



TODAY'S

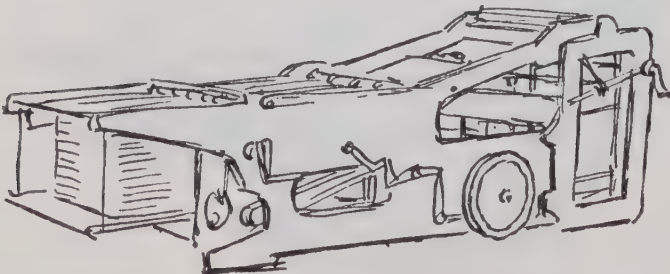
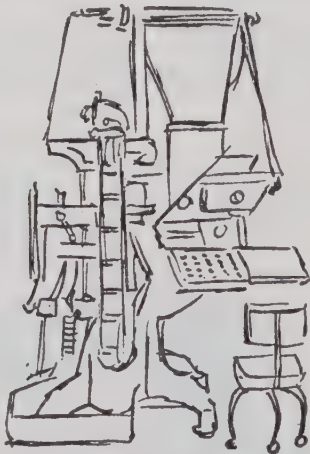
LINOTYPE MACHINES

AND GIANT

PRINTING PRESSES

FLOOD THE EARTH WITH

PRINTED LITERATURE



written in defence of this precious democratic right.

Freedom of the press was not allowed in Milton's time: no book or pamphlet could be printed without permission from the government. That is still true today in many countries, but in England a change came in 1696, soon after the Revolution of 1688 which put James II off the Throne. From that time it was possible to publish anything without permission, and thus England was a pioneer in allowing freedom of the press.

In the eighteenth century the rise of the newspaper was an important development. Before that time news travelled by conversation or by letters. In the seventeenth century quite a business grew up in hand-written 'news letters' written in London and sent out through the country. In the eighteenth century, however, these were replaced by printed newspapers, which at the beginning were usually not more than four or eight small pages, and certainly with their small print and lack of headlines and pictures were very unlike our modern newspapers. Still they told about politics and parliament and had news of other sorts and small advertisements. Several fa-

mous English newspapers were started in the eighteenth century. Among them was *The Times*, founded in 1785, which is probably the best known newspaper in the world.

In the eighteenth century also libraries became common and the first dictionaries were published. It was not until 1682 that the first public library was started in London by a clergyman, who said young clergymen should have something better to do than spend their time in coffee houses. Public libraries grew slowly but in the eighteenth century it came to be thought that a fine house was not complete without a library. With so much writing and publishing going on, it was natural that dictionaries should be started, and the best known, though not the first, was that published in 1755 by the famous Doctor Samuel Johnson, which became a model for later dictionaries. People also began to pay more attention to spelling, and we are told of a letter written in 1750 by a nobleman to his son advising him to learn to spell correctly, and saying that he knew a man "who never recovered from the ridicule of having spelled wholesome without the w".

When we come down into the nineteenth century, and look at the English language and literature we realize that we have reached modern times. Books, magazines, and newspapers pour off the presses, and readers are numbered in hundreds of thousands, and in our own day in millions. In this period the English language continued to grow and change perhaps as fast as at any time in its long history. Thousands of words have been added, many of them like radio and television, having to do with new inventions; others like zoo start out as abbreviations or slang and finally get into the dictionaries and become respectable, as we might say, while many others drop out and are forgotten. This is what happens to every living language. English has also become, more than any other, an international language. At the United Nations, for example, English is used probably three or four times as much as the other four official languages put together.

English literature has also grown in the last hundred and fifty years and many famous names have been added to its long list

of authors, Tennyson, Wordsworth, Scott, Dickens, Stevenson, Barrie, Masfield, Browning, Shaw, and others far too numerous to mention. Of the many kinds of writing in this period, perhaps the novel had the greatest development and many people think Dickens the greatest English novelist. However that may be, he left us not only his long stories like *David Copperfield* but also gems like his *Christmas Carol*, and unforgettable characters, like the laughable Pickwick, the miser Scrooge who became a good angel, and Micawber the lovable ne'er-do-well. But Dickens wanted to do more than tell a story. His own unhappy childhood made him hate the misery and injustice and selfishness which he saw around him. In stinging words in many of his stories he told of the unhappiness and suffering of the poor, and thus he became one of the most powerful influences which improved the condition of children, and encouraged many other reforms. Great literature is always close to the life of a people, and so it is that when we look at the writings of men like Dickens we can see how remarkably they have helped to broaden and deepen the stream of English culture through the centuries.

2. Education

Today schools are one of the chief means by which our culture is preserved and handed on. In Canada we feel that all our boys and girls should have an education not only to help them to earn a living but also to give them some understanding of the world in which we live, of our democratic ways of government, and of our great treasures in such things as literature and music. In Canada, schools are for everyone, and the taxpayer pays for them. We take this so much for granted that it is surprising to realize that only in the nineteenth century did this idea of public education become common. In England a system of general education was not worked out until late in the nineteenth century.

For centuries in Anglo-Saxon England and down through the Middle Ages education was almost entirely carried on by the church, except where nobles or rich men got teachers specially for their own children. Schools were attached to monasteries or cathedrals where bright boys were taught, and many a boy of poor parents got his only chance to rise to better circumstances through the education given in these church schools. Every pupil had to learn to speak and read Latin, which was for centuries the language of the church and of laws, and then the students went on to the Trivium—or three part course—grammar, rhetoric, and logic, or the art of reasoning, where they were trained in debating. Following that came the Quadrivium, or four part course, arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy. These seven subjects were known as the liberal arts, and formed the basic education from which students went on to study law, medicine, or theology. There were no printed books, and hand-written books were very expensive. Mostly pupils copied down what the teacher said and learned or memorized it carefully.

Girls were taught in convent schools to read, sew, and care for a house. A few women got an education in the liberal arts, but this was unusual.

Universities began in the Middle Ages, and this was one of the most important happenings of that period. The first at Salerno in Italy early in the twelfth century was soon followed by others in Western Europe, among them Oxford and Cambridge which were begun in the thirteenth century in England. Medieval universities were very different from those of today. There was little in the way of buildings and libraries at first, only students



ELIZABETH AT THE VIRGINAL

and teachers. Students attended what classes they pleased, and often wandered about from one university to another begging their way, crowding to hear the most famous teachers, and carrying in the long sleeves and pockets of their gowns a few books, a loaf of bread, and other odds and ends to keep them going. They were a carefree and often noisy lot. In spite of all their weaknesses the universities grew, however. Gifts of buildings and land gradually came to them and by the end of the Middle Ages they were well established.

Thus for a long time education changed only gradually. By Queen Elizabeth I's reign there were, however, several hundred grammar schools, as they were called, scattered through England and they taught the new subjects such as Greek which had come in with the Renaissance. It was at Stratford Grammar School, for example, that Shakespeare got his education. So there was some improvement over earlier times, but still no attempt was made to teach the mass of the people. It is interesting to know that Eliza-

beth herself was a clever pupil and had a very good education. She could speak Italian, Spanish and French, was a good Latin and Greek scholar and could play the virginal. While this was all right for a princess, few



STUDENTS AT A MEDIEVAL UNIVERSITY

girls of the upper classes got more than some reading and writing, along with sewing and some music.

One important development in Queen Elizabeth's reign was the system of apprentices. By the Statute of Artificers of 1563 every boy who wished to learn a trade or craft had to work as an apprentice for seven years under a master of his craft who was responsible for training him and indeed for clothing and keeping him. So even homeless boys were provided for, and though the system was by no means perfect it did very well, and lasted in places even to our own day when it has been replaced by schools of various kinds.

Not until the nineteenth century did a modern school system of education for everyone come into England. It is true that in the eighteenth century the churches especially showed a new interest in education and started hundreds of schools for children whose parents could not afford to send them to the grammar schools. In many villages there were also 'dames' schools where women took in pupils for a small fee. Nor should we forget that Sunday Schools were started in the eighteenth century, especially by a printer in Gloucester called Robert Raikes who wanted to teach poor children and opened his first school in 1780. Few good and simple ideas have had a greater influence.

In spite of these things, however, there were still no schools in the early nineteenth century for great numbers of children. Worse than that many thousands of children were abused and neglected. Not until 1842, for example, was an Act passed to forbid employing children under ten in mines, and the use of little boys as chimney sweeps was not stopped until 1875. But public opinion was changing, and in 1870 an Act was passed which set up schools where they were needed under locally elected School Boards. This was a real turning point and a national system of education for everyone soon began to appear. Other Acts followed, the most famous being the Education Act of 1944, which reorganized the schools of England and Wales. Free full-time schooling is now provided for children from five to fifteen

years of age, and part-time from fifteen to eighteen, with provision for nursery schools for the ages of two to five.

New universities have also been established in the past hundred years so that in addition to the ancient ones of Oxford and Cambridge there are now universities in all parts of the country, and the government has also established many scholarships to help hard-working and able students. Today public libraries, radio, and television play a part in English education along with the schools and universities. Thus we can see how Britain has developed her national system of democratic education by mingling the old with the new. It is this peaceful mingling of old and new that is one of the chief sources of Britain's strength.

3. Religion and the Churches

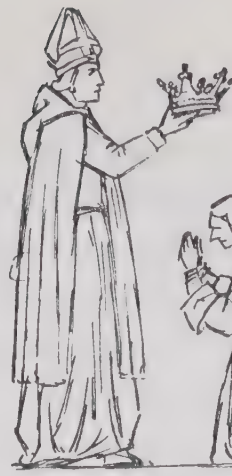
Few countries have a prayer as a national anthem, and when people in Britain sing *God Save the Queen* it is a reminder of how important a part religion has played in the life of the British people. How Christianity first came to Britain in Roman times we do not know, but it is interesting to remember that St. Patrick, whose day we still celebrate, was born in Roman Britain. After studying for a time in France, he determined to go as a missionary to Ireland, and whether or not he drove the snakes out of the Emerald Isle, he certainly did such remarkable work in establishing Christianity that it is little wonder that he became the patron saint of Ireland.

The early Irish church founded by Patrick had a remarkable history, but in England Christianity seems to have died out after the Romans left, not to be brought back until almost two centuries later when missionaries were sent from Rome to the Anglo-Saxons. The story is that Pope Gregory, when a young man, had seen some youths with fair faces and golden hair, bound in the market-place of Rome, and on asking who they were had been told, "They are Angles".

"Not Angles but Angels", he replied, and had wondered whether missionaries might be sent to their country.

However that may be, we do know that in 597 a band of monks led by one named Augustine landed on the island of Thanet in south England. Soon a monastery was built at nearby Canterbury, and from there Christianity gradually spread through the island. Before the end of the Anglo-Saxon period magnificent Canterbury Cathedral was begun, and the Archbishop of Canterbury became the senior churchman in the kingdom. Westminster Abbey was also begun in the Anglo-Saxon period and it was there that William the Conqueror was crowned, as the kings and queens have been all through the centuries since that time.

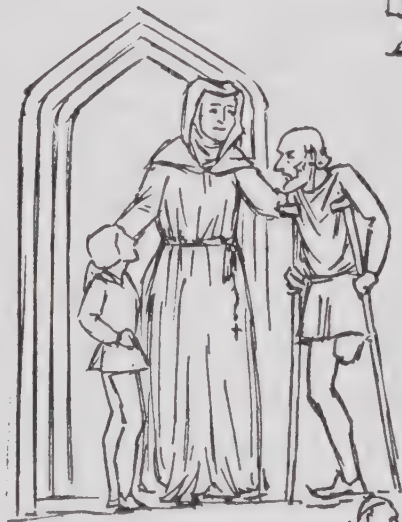
Through the whole of the Middle Ages England was a Roman Catholic country, and the church played a very great part in all kinds of ways. Its bishops and archbishops and great abbots were members of the House of Lords, and many of them were important advisers to the kings. Education was under the church, and it was the church too which



GOVERNMENT

CHURCH LEADERS
SAT IN THE
PRIVY COUNCIL
AND THE
HOUSE OF LORDS

JUSTICE
WILLS
WERE PROBATED
IN CHURCH COURTS



CHARITY
THE CHURCH
MINISTERED
TO THE POOR,
SICK, AGED,
MAIMED
& ORPHANED

THE ARTS
PAINTINGS,
SCULPTURE
AND MUSIC
BEAUTIFIED THE CHURCHES



EDUCATION

CONVENTS, MONASTERIES KEPT LEARNING ALIVE

gave charity and provided poor relief and hospitals. The church was a very great landowner. Its cathedrals and parish churches, its convents and monasteries were dotted through the land. It encouraged art and learning. It also had its own courts where cases which had anything to do with church laws were tried, and in those days church laws dealt with many things like wills which are no longer under the church. Thus for centuries the church entered into the life of the people in all sorts of ways, and had a very great influence in the growth of England's culture.

In the sixteenth century there came about the important change known as the Reformation, out of which grew the Church of England and other Protestant churches. As with all great changes it is impossible to explain the causes of the Reformation in a few words. We have already given some notice to them in Unit Four. Among them were criticisms which were being made of the church, that it was too much controlled from Rome, that too much money was going to the support of the Pope, that it was too worldly, wealthy and powerful, and so forth. How much effect such criticisms would have had it is hard to say, had not the king, Henry VIII, taken a hand. Henry had various motives, some of them much more political than religious. One was that he had no male heir, and he wished to divorce his queen, Catharine, and marry again. Catharine had been a Spanish princess, and when the divorce was refused by the Pope, Henry, who believed that the Pope was under the influence of Spain, got Parliament to pass an Act of Supremacy in 1534 saying that the Church in England was no longer under the Pope's authority. Henry was thus able to get his divorce, but this change soon led to others, and especially after Henry's death, to religious changes in the Protestant direction which Henry himself would not have favoured. Henry, in fact, did not like the new Protestant ideas in spite of his desire to throw off papal control.

It is not surprising that these new ideas and tremendous changes brought violent differences of opinion with sincere men on both sides. Among these was Sir Thomas More (1478-1535), one of the

most attractive figures in English history, and in his day the greatest leader of the Renaissance in England. More was a brilliant scholar and statesman, the Lord Chancellor of the kingdom and an intimate friend of Henry VIII. He wrote one of the famous books of English literature, *Utopia*, meaning 'No Place', in which he described an imaginary ideal country. More as a sincere churchman believed that the church needed reform, but when Henry was declared head of the church by the Act of Supremacy More would not agree, and rather than change his religious conviction he went to the block at Henry's order. Four hundred years later in 1935 he was declared a saint of the Roman Catholic church. There were martyrs too on the other side. When Mary, Henry's daughter, became queen she wished to restore Roman Catholicism, and among those who were sent to the stake were Bishops Ridley and Latimer, and Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury. Cranmer more than anyone else had been responsible for preparing the Book of Common Prayer which, with some later changes, is used in the Church of England services to the present day. All of them were burned in Oxford.

When Queen Elizabeth I came to the throne after Mary's death she thus had the very serious problem of a divided country facing her. She decided to bring back the Church of England but without the harsh persecution of her father Henry. England like other countries in the sixteenth century was still far from religious toleration. Only one religion, it was thought, could be



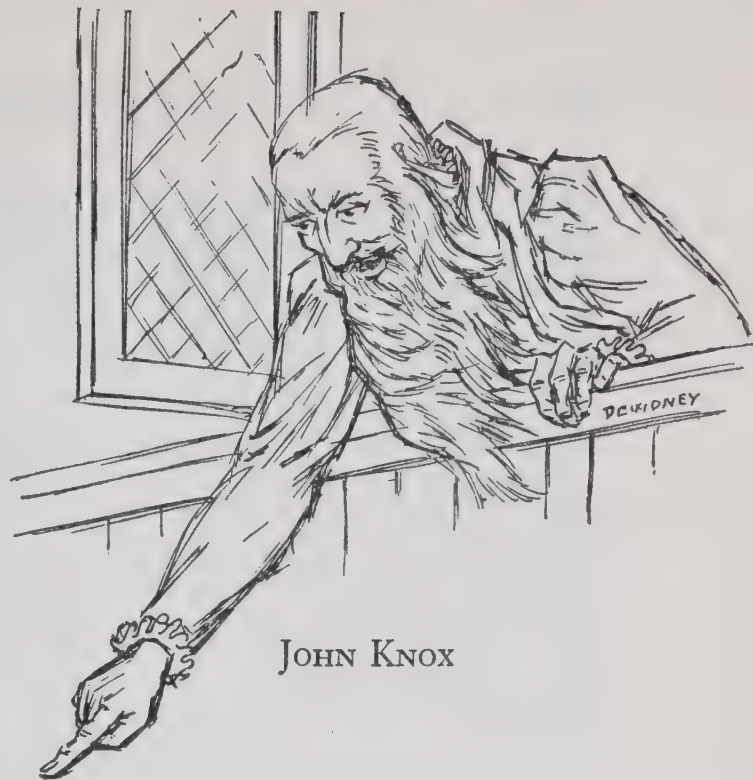
SIR THOMAS MORE

allowed if a country was to be strong and united, but Elizabeth decided that so long as people would not openly oppose the national church she would not pry into their opinions or into their religious practices in their houses. So the Church of England services were brought back with the Bible in English, and people were required to attend church or to pay fines if they failed to do so. This 'church settlement' of Elizabeth as it is called seemed to satisfy the majority of the English people, and it proved to be very important since the Prayer Book and services in the Church of England remain much the same today after four hundred years, even if the fines for staying away from church have long since disappeared.

There were two groups, however, who did not like Elizabeth's church settlement. One was her Roman Catholic subjects, but most of them preferred it to Spanish rule and when the Armada attacked England they loyally rallied around the queen. The other group were those Protestants who came to be known as Puritans. They claimed that the services as laid down in the Prayer Book were not like the services of the early Christian church and that they should be simplified or purified. The Puritans also did not like the church to be controlled by bishops, and the more extreme Puritans believed that each congregation should control itself and choose its own minister. Elizabeth thought such ideas were very dangerous. But although she managed to keep the Puritans under control during her reign, they had a large share fifty years later in the Civil War which defeated Charles I and brought about his execution.

Before we leave Elizabeth's reign we should notice how the Reformation affected Ireland and Scotland, for this too is of importance to us in the present day. In Ireland it made no appeal and the Irish remained strongly Roman Catholic. Today, in the northern counties known as Ulster, there are large numbers of Protestants, but these are descendants of settlers who came later from Scotland and England, mostly in the seventeenth century. In Scotland, the story was quite different. Even before Elizabeth's reign the Reformation had started in Scotland, and the Scottish

Presbyterian church was begun. The Presbyterians, like the English Puritans, did not like the Church of England services and Prayer Book, and believed that an assembly of elders and ministers from the various congregations — not bishops — should control the church. In 1559, the very year Elizabeth came to the throne, the Scottish Presbyterians re-



JOHN KNOX

ceived tremendous help when the famous John Knox returned to Scotland from Geneva, the great centre of Reformation influence in Switzerland. Scotland's ruler was the no less famous Mary Queen of Scots who was a Roman Catholic and was supported by France, and Knox immediately threw himself into the struggle against her. John Knox's house can still be seen in Edinburgh on the road known as the Royal Mile where, it is said, Knox leaned out of his window to denounce Mary as she drove in from Holyrood Palace. In a pamphlet Knox had called Mary one of 'The Monstrous Regiment of Women' who were then ruling in Europe, Queen Elizabeth being another one. We are not surprised therefore that Elizabeth also did not like Knox and his Presbyterian ideas. Knox, however, was more than an enemy of queens. He was a great reformer with plans for educating the Scottish people and improving their life, and although he did not accomplish all that he wished he had a tremendous influence in Scottish history. In later years a love of the Bible, and of learning, became almost as typical of Scotland as oatmeal porridge. While many, especially in the Highlands, remained Roman Catholic, Presbyterianism under Knox became a power in the land and from Scotland it spread overseas into many countries.

To tell of all the religious changes in England after Elizabeth's

day would be impossible, but perhaps four may be mentioned, two in the seventeenth century, one in the eighteenth, and one in the nineteenth. It was in the seventeenth century that the Baptists, and the Society of Friends or Quakers began. The Baptists grew out of the extreme Puritans who believed, for example, that each congregation should control itself, and choose its minister, but they went further than many even of the extreme Puritans in stressing the right of every man to liberty of conscience, that is the right to believe and worship as he wished. They were against any connection whatever between church and state, and for these ideas many were imprisoned. The most remarkable of these was the Baptist minister, John Bunyan, who spent twelve years in Bedford jail and was the author of the immortal allegory *Pilgrim's Progress*, published in 1678. The story of Pilgrim and his adventures with Giant Despair and other enemies on his road to the Heavenly City has had so many imita-

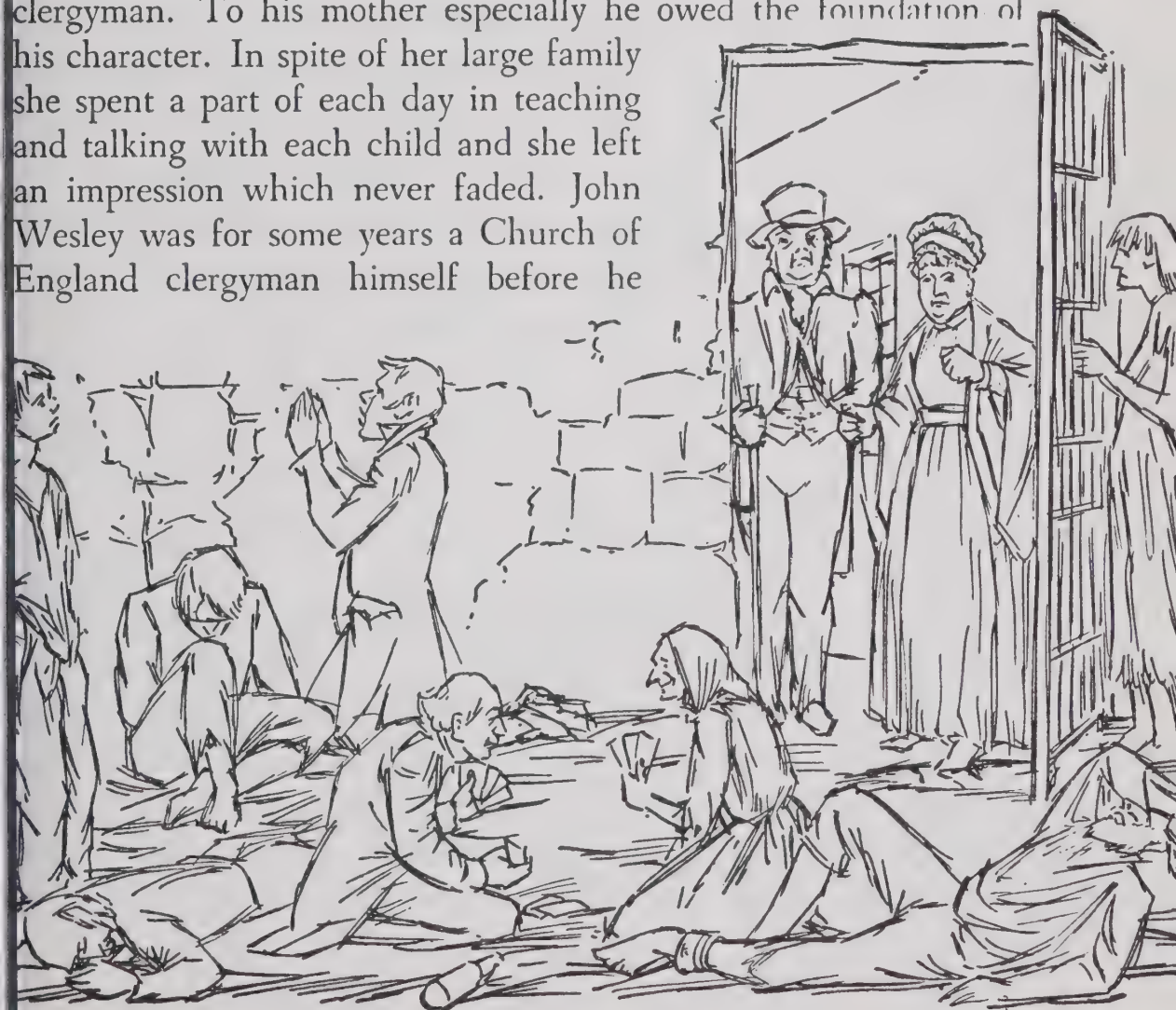
tors and so many millions of readers for almost three hundred years that it is now accepted as one of the greatest books in the history of English literature.

It was George Fox, the son of a weaver, who founded the Society of Friends about the middle of the seventeenth century. The Quakers rejected the idea of having any priests or ministers at all, or even a written creed, and so differed sharply even from all other extreme Puritans. They refused to take part in wars, believing that violence could only be conquered by love



and forgiveness, and for this and other beliefs they received much persecution. Finally, however, their sincerity and their many services to humanity won respect, so that we now recognize, for example, the right of the 'conscientious objector' not to perform military service. The Quakers were among the first to oppose slavery and the slave trade, and the first petition ever sent to Parliament on this subject came from them in 1783. One of the most famous Quaker names is that of Elizabeth Fry, who formed an association in 1817 to help the female prisoners in London's Newgate prison. Conditions were unspeakably bad, and the story of Elizabeth Fry's pioneer work in prison reform and in the care of the insane is as thrilling as that of Florence Nightingale in nursing and hospitals a few years later.

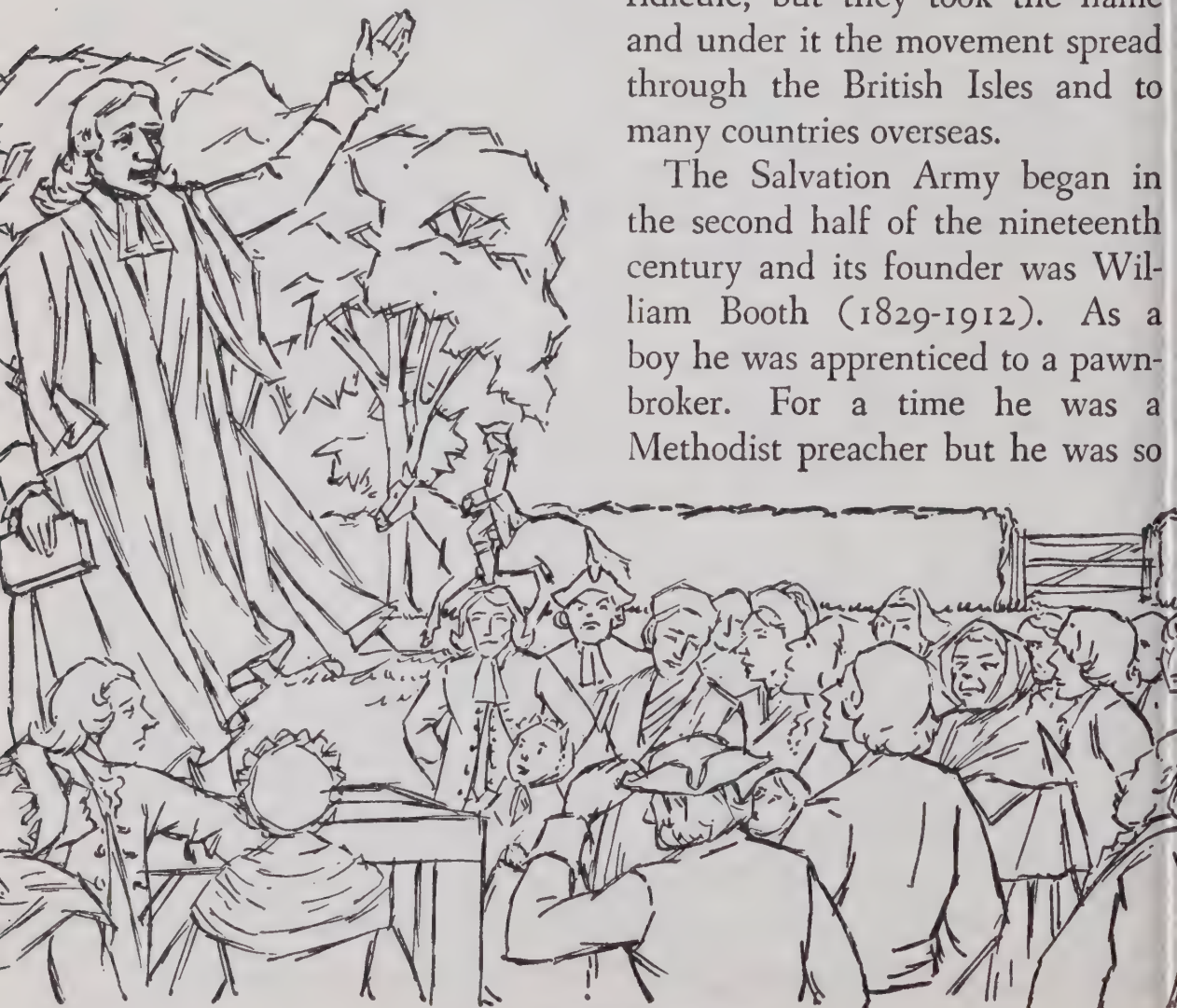
In the eighteenth century another religious movement, Methodism, was begun by John Wesley, the son of a Church of England clergyman. To his mother especially he owed the foundation of his character. In spite of her large family she spent a part of each day in teaching and talking with each child and she left an impression which never faded. John Wesley was for some years a Church of England clergyman himself before he



ELIZABETH FRY VISITS A PRISON

became fired with a desire to preach to the mass of people who were not being reached by the church, and convert them to a better way of life. With a few others, including his brother Charles who wrote many very popular hymns, he began preaching in the open air. At first, as he wrote, "I could scarcely reconcile myself to this strange way of preaching in the fields." Soon he was travelling throughout England preaching to great crowds, and organizing little groups of followers who carried on his work. For fifty years he travelled as much as 5000 miles a year on horse-back or stage coach, and preached fifteen or more times a week, besides which he wrote and published books, and started many social reforms to improve the health and education of the people. His famous diary has been described as "The most amazing record of human exertion ever penned by man!" Wesley and his followers were so methodical that they were called Methodists at first in ridicule, but they took the name and under it the movement spread through the British Isles and to many countries overseas.

The Salvation Army began in the second half of the nineteenth century and its founder was William Booth (1829-1912). As a boy he was apprenticed to a pawnbroker. For a time he was a Methodist preacher but he was so



JOHN WESLEY

moved by pity for the outcast and by hatred of the dirt and suffering in which so many people lived that he started his own Christian Mission in London, out of which in 1878 grew the Salvation Army. Like many other reformers Booth and his army were violently opposed at first, but they carried on so many good works to assist the needy and to help those who were in trouble to start a new life, that before his death General Booth became one of the most honoured figures in the English-speaking world.

Thus through the lives of men and women like Elizabeth Fry who were inspired to attack the evils of their day, through schools and universities, through the writing of many books, through church services and the study of the Bible, religion through the centuries has made a great contribution to the stream of British culture.

One more question should, perhaps, be answered. How did religious toleration come about in England? We have noticed that up to Queen Elizabeth I's time it was believed that only one religion should be allowed, and this idea continued on into the seventeenth century. Very few people really believed in liberty of conscience and freedom of worship, although sometimes those who did not openly oppose the state religion were allowed to practise their own religion in private. Often, however, there were fines, or imprisonment, or persecution for those who openly opposed or criticized the government. England was by no means the only country where this was the case. It was in fact true almost everywhere, and even in our own day there are still countries which do not have religious toleration. The first permanent change in England came with the passing of the Toleration Act of 1689—immediately after the Revolution of 1688. This allowed the 'Dissenters', that is the Protestants outside the Church of England, to worship freely and openly in their own churches. They still did not have the full rights of citizens. For example, they could not sit in Parliament or hold certain public offices. During most of the eighteenth century, however, these laws were not enforced, although they actually stayed on the statute books



British Information Office

WELLS CATHEDRAL—A FINE EXAMPLE OF EARLY ENGLISH ARCHITECTURE

for a century more until 1828. The Toleration Act of 1689 did not help Roman Catholics and some others. In the later eighteenth century, however, many of these restrictions were removed one by one, so that by the end of the century Catholics had freedom of worship and most other rights except those of holding public offices and sitting in Parliament. Finally in 1829 the Catholic Emancipation Act granted these rights too.

4. The Arts

In Salisbury in southern England stands one of England's most precious possessions, famous Salisbury Cathedral whose tower, the highest in the British Isles, stretches upward 404 feet. Built in the thirteenth century, with its tower

added a century later, Salisbury is only one of the great 'Gothic' cathedrals of the Middle Ages. This Gothic style of architecture, as it is called, flourished all through northern Europe in the medieval period, and many of its finest examples are in Britain. With its pointed arches, its towers and spires reaching up toward Heaven, its lovely stained-glass windows often filled in with stone tracery, and its decorative stone carvings of gargoyles and all sorts of other figures and designs, the Gothic style is one of the most beautiful ever developed. The cathedrals are the most magnificent examples of Gothic. "They stand", one writer has said, "century after century silently praising God." But a great many other buildings such as abbeys, college buildings, and small churches were built in the same style, and indeed Gothic has been continued and adapted in our own day. The Parliament Buildings in Ottawa, and Hart House in the University of Toronto are fine modern Canadian examples.

In every country the arts, such as painting, music, and architecture are a very important part of the stream of culture; and, if we could follow them through the whole of British history, we could see how, in every century the British people expressed themselves through the arts, and made them a real part of their life. For example, in architecture, which has been called history in stone, an important development in the England of Elizabeth I was not in church building but in domestic architecture. Castles with their thick walls and narrow loopholes, gave way to manor houses with wide windows, open courtyards, and comfortable living rooms with beamed ceilings and lovely fireplaces. This change to more comfortable living came with the Renaissance, when feudal castles were going out of date, both because times were more peaceful, and because they were no longer of use, now that gunpowder and cannon could batter them down.

The greatest of English architects, Sir Christopher Wren (1632-1723), did not use Gothic. By Wren's time, the Renaissance had influenced architecture, as it had literature and everything else, and Wren's style of architecture was different from

that of the Middle Ages. How true this is can be seen from his great masterpiece, St. Paul's Cathedral in London, which took thirty-five years to build. With its Roman columns and enormous dome, one of the finest ever built, it is a far cry from the Gothic Cathedrals with their arches and spires. In 1666 a great fire swept London, and this gave Wren a wonderful opportunity as he was employed to rebuild much that had been destroyed. He designed literally scores of buildings, including no fewer than fifty-four churches, and all of them with remarkable skill. Wren's buildings are one of the glories of London. Unfortunately many were damaged or destroyed in the bombing of the Second World War, but many survived and even St. Paul's escaped, it would seem almost by miracle, though everything for blocks around was levelled to the ground or burnt out.

In the eighteenth century still another style of architecture appeared, to which the name Georgian is given because of the Georges who sat on the throne. Georgian architecture, much of it in brick, is simpler in design than Wren's Renaissance buildings, but it is very pleasing to the eye with windows and doors set in lovely proportion to the whole building. Georgian architecture is very practical, especially for houses and smaller public buildings, and there are many examples of it in Canada.

In music the greatest single name is that of Henry Purcell (1658-1695), who lived in the same period as Wren. Purcell was appointed organist of Westminster Abbey when he was only eighteen and during his life he composed a very great deal, especially of sacred music which is still sung. In the eighteenth century the great name was that of Handel who came from Germany as a young man and spent the rest of his life in England. Among all his compositions his great oratorios like *The Messiah* are the most famous, and they are now sung all over the English-speaking world. Someone has said that Handel in these oratorios set the Bible to music. When George I heard the Hallelujah Chorus in *The Messiah* he rose to his feet, a custom which continues to the present day. In our own time the radio has made

these great masterpieces familiar to millions of people, where fifty years ago they were heard by only a few.

While Britain has not been a leader in music since the seventeenth century, there has been a great musical revival in the twentieth century, of which the influence of the Edinburgh Festival and of the famous conductor, Sir Thomas Beecham, are examples. The love of music among the people has, however, always been strong. The Welsh in particular have always been great singers, and choral music from Britain has spread very widely. One other typical example of British music must be mentioned, the famous Gilbert and Sullivan operas with their lovely lilting tunes full of good humour. No wonder they are sung year after year in schools and by amateur companies as well as by professionals. They show too another important thing about British culture, the willingness of the British people to laugh at themselves. Surely this is a sign of strength, which only a few nations have.

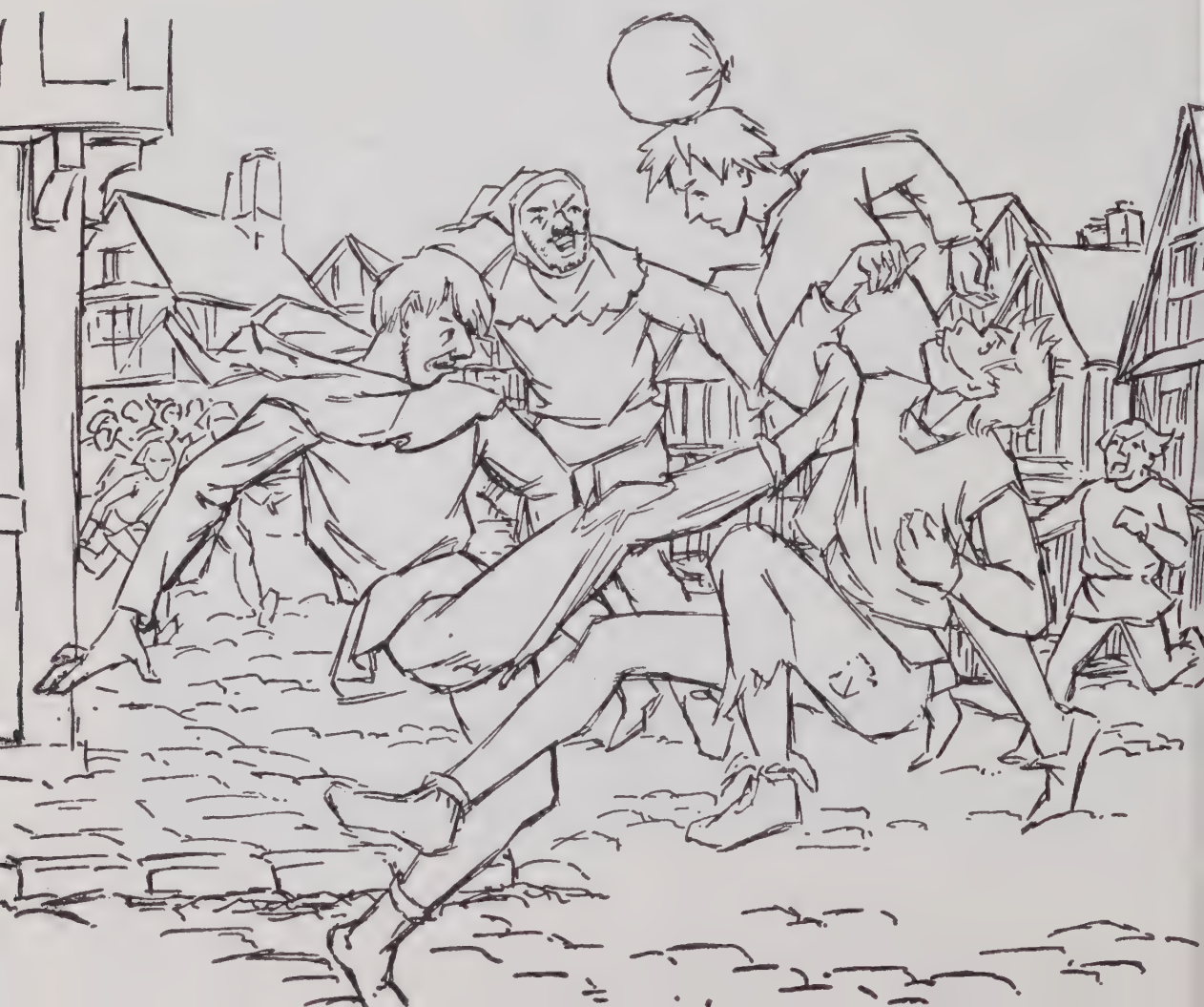
It is impossible here to tell of the other arts. In painting there are names like Gainsborough, Constable and Turner; in drama, Shakespeare, the greatest of all, and many others. Each of them had his story and his great works which should be known to everyone. One other point should be noticed, the habit of bringing the beautiful and the useful together. We see it in the love of flowers and gardens in the rose-covered cottages of the villages, and in many other corners of everyday life in Britain. Such things show us the character of a people, just as truly as do the great works of art.

5. Sports and Games

If everyday things in art show a people's character, so also do its games and the way it plays. No country has had a greater love of outdoor games than Britain. In fact it is scarcely too much to say that Britain taught the modern world to play, and the English word 'sport' has been taken over into

other languages. Many modern games have originated in Britain, and the British have also taken games and sports from elsewhere, made rules for them and developed them into popularity. Football and cricket were almost certainly originated in England, golf and curling in Scotland. Lawn bowling, lawn tennis, track sports, swimming and rowing were developed in England. Polo was brought from India, and badminton developed from the Indian game of poona.

Football is said to have originated in the eleventh century by kicking a Danish skull around, and was known as 'kicking the Dane's head'. However that may be, it was played as early as the twelfth century with an inflated cow's bladder, and between the men and boys of neighbouring towns, the idea being to kick the bladder into the centre of your rival's town. This led to wild scenes, and Henry II ordered football stopped because it interfered with the practice of archery. Cricket also is said to have been banned for a time in the fourteenth century for the same reason.



The love of games continued, however, and early in the seventeenth century James I issued a *Book of Sports* to encourage them in the face of Puritan disapproval. The idea of rules seems to have developed in the eighteenth century especially. The London Cricket Club drew up rules for cricket in 1744, and in the same century the Marquis of Queensbury drew up rules for boxing which still bear his name.

Games, however, are less important than the way in which they are played, and here Britain has made a great contribution to the modern world, for it was in Britain that the idea of good sportsmanship in games developed. This can be seen in such common phrases as, 'It's not cricket', or 'It's not the sporting thing to do'. The idea of 'fair play', and playing for the love of the game and not merely to win, developed in England. In the eighteenth century everyone in the village played cricket together, the squire or nobleman often playing with his tenants. Someone has said that if the French nobles had been capable of playing cricket with their peasants, their castles would never have been burned in the French Revolution. Certainly playing games together developed good will and friendliness, and the ideals of fair play, sportsmanship, and good nature are among the finest characteristics of the British people. They are a part of British culture and they are ideals which the modern world cannot afford to lose.



Learn by Doing

1. Two pupils conduct an imaginary interview with William Shakespeare. Bring out facts about his life and work. (1)
2. Study one of Milton's poems. (1)
3. Examine the reader used in your class to discover poems written by English writers. (1)
4. Have two committees prepare brief reports on the development of education in Britain and in Canada. (2)
5. List the names and denominations of the churches in your community. (3)
6. Read the book, *One God*, by Fitch, published by Lothrop Lee and Shepard.
7. Find examples of early English architecture in your community. Discuss them. (4)
8. (a) Discuss the importance of good sportsmanship.
(b) Read the poem *Play the Game* by Henry Newbolt. (5)

Facts to Know

1. How has the invention of printing affected our way of life today? (1)
2. Why is education particularly important in a democratic country? (2)
3. Outline briefly ways in which Christianity has affected Britain and Canada. (3)
4. Write a paragraph telling what is meant by the statement: "In Canada, we have the separation of church and state." (3)
5. List a few English painters and musicians. (4)

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UNIT EIGHT

THE EXPANSION OF BRITAIN OVERSEAS

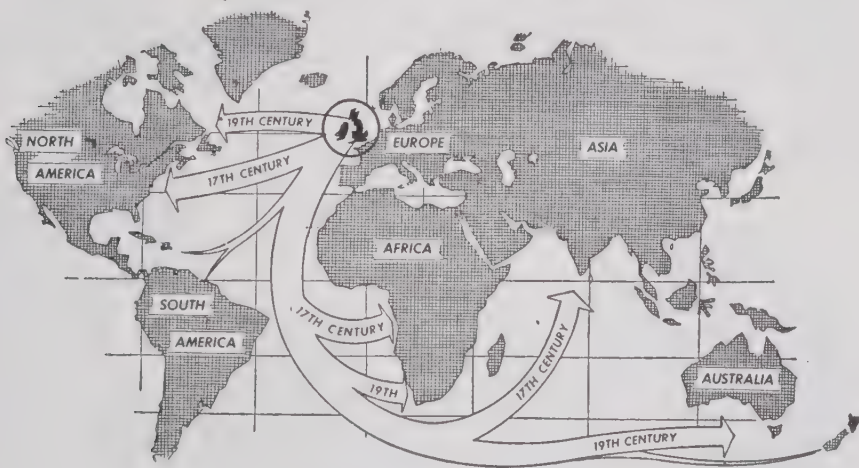
1. *Tudor Adventuring Across the Seas, 1497 - 1603*
2. *Stuart Colonizing and Empire - Building, 1603 - 1714*
3. *The British Empire in the Eighteenth Century*

In the time of Queen Elizabeth I there were four or five million people living in England and very few English people living anywhere else in the world. Today, the descendants of these four or five millions number probably over three hundred millions; of whom about fifty millions live in the British Isles, and the rest are scattered throughout the world in the countries of the Commonwealth, in the United States, and in dozens of other places, including all the colonies and dependencies large and small of the British Empire. This scattering and expansion of the British people is one of the most remarkable facts in the history of the modern world. Indeed there is no other case quite like it.

How did this remarkable expansion take place in a little over three hundred years? What were the reasons for such a swarming

of people out from England, and what are the stories of all the colonies and settlements made in so many parts of the world? Who were all these explorers, missionaries, traders, fathers, mothers, and children who sailed the seas to new lands in search of adventure or wealth or new homes? A hundred books would be needed to answer all these fascinating questions, and in this unit we can only get the beginning of the story.

We should remember that England was not the only country which expanded overseas. Europe's expansion began as far back as the days of Marco Polo, who travelled all the way across Asia



BRITAIN EXPANDS

to China and back. Two centuries later Columbus discovered America and Vasco da Gama sailed around Africa to India. Following this Spain, Portugal, France and Holland all built empires, while Russia expanded eastwards—right across Asia to the Pacific. England's expansion was, therefore, part of this European expansion which went on for centuries.

1. Tudor Adventuring Across the Seas, 1497 - 1603

(a) **The Bare Beginning.** Our story can begin just five years after Columbus discovered America and in

the very year that Vasco da Gama sailed to India. On a day in 1497, Master John Cabot was amazed. After sailing his little ship *Mathew* far out into the unknown Atlantic, he had come on waters so teeming with fish that baskets let down from the ship could be taken up in a moment, crammed with glittering cod. Though he did not yet know it, Cabot had discovered one of the world's richest fishing grounds, the great banks off Newfoundland. His



discovery really marks the beginning of Canada's history, since from that time men voyaged from Europe to fish in these waters, and soon they were beginning to learn about the silent shores beyond.

Cabot, who like Christopher Columbus, was an Italian navigator, had been sent on his voyage westward by some English merchants of Bristol. They knew that Columbus, sailing in the service of Spain, had found new lands and wealth across the At-

lantic. Might not Cabot do the same for England? And Cabot did find new land for England—Newfoundland, a great island set in a sea full of fish. Even shrewd but tight-fisted King Henry VII was moved to give him a reward, and in his royal account book he wrote: "To hym that founde the new Isle, £10." Today 'the new Isle' is Canada's easternmost province: a fact that again reminds us how closely Canada's story is woven into Britain's past.

The discovery of Newfoundland and its fisheries was only the bare beginning of Britain's expansion overseas. Though Cabot and his son made other voyages, it was not until later in Tudor times, and indeed until the great reign of Queen Elizabeth, that English expansion really got under way. By that time England had able navigators of her own and hardy seamen aplenty. Many of her skilled and daring mariners learned their seamanship as fishermen on the long rough passage to Newfoundland. So Cabot's voyage was only a start, but it was certainly a good start for a great sea empire.

(b) England Turns to the Sea. It was in the reign of Queen Elizabeth I that England first became a sea power, and so laid the firm foundations for Britain's later overseas expansion. For centuries before, it is true, the people of the British Isles had sailed the waters around their island homes. Yet they had chiefly engaged only in coastal shipping between one British port and another. Much of the trade with other countries had been carried in foreign vessels. Before the Age of Discovery, which opened up America and the Far East, Italy was the most important trading and sea power in Europe. The Mediterranean region was the heart of the known world, and Italy, at its centre, was able to dominate Europe's commerce. Britain at this time was on the outer edge of civilization.

But the Age of Discovery brought tremendous changes. As the new sea routes spread out to America, Africa and the Far East, the countries on the Atlantic coast of Europe began to forge ahead of Italy. Spain and Portugal leaped first into the lead, and claimed all the trade of the newly discovered overseas world for themselves.

The Pope, indeed, drew a line dividing the world overseas between them, but Spain soon became the stronger of the two.

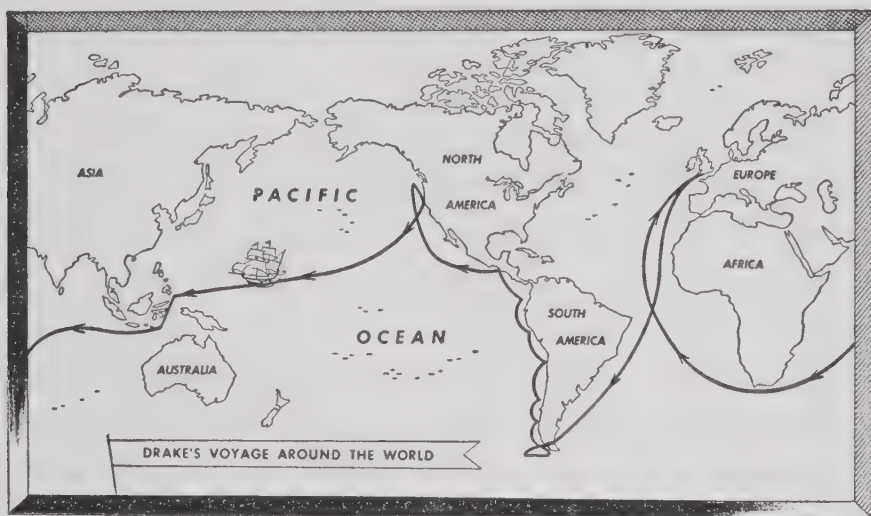
In the long run, however, it was Britain that gained most. Instead of lying at the back door of Europe, she now found herself set squarely across its front gates, and England, the strongest and most prosperous part of the British Isles, took full advantage of it. As the new ocean trade mounted, Englishmen sought a larger and larger share. Thus it was that by the time Elizabeth's reign began in 1558, England was embarked on a great era of exploration and trade expansion.

English merchants wanted new markets for the fast-growing Tudor wool and cloth industry. They joined together in companies to open trade with strange and far-off lands. English seamen sailed to Africa in the slave trade (then a respectable business) or hunted whales in icy northern seas. Soon they began to traffic with the rising Spanish colonies of central America, along the 'Spanish Main', though this was against the Spanish law as Spain wanted to keep the rich new colonial commerce for herself. They dreamed too of starting their own direct trade with the Far East, the realm of silks, spices and jewels, either by finding a new northern passage to Asia or by breaking through the Spanish and Portuguese claims to control the seaways to the golden East.

England's sea power grew with her commerce, because merchant vessels could fight as well as trade. In Tudor times, trading vessels went fully armed, and often fought their own battles with pirates or foreign rivals. Hence these ships were of great value in time of war. In fact, in Elizabeth's day the regular Navy was small and the numbers and fighting skill of the merchant vessels were very important. Nevertheless, the Royal Navy was the hard core of Tudor fighting strength at sea; and in this connection it is worth noting that Elizabeth's father, Henry VIII, had done much to develop the Navy and launch it on its proud career.

England's growing sea power soon came up against the might of Spain, then the centre of the world's greatest empire. But England was better prepared than she realized, for Queen Eliza-

both was served by the most daring group of fighting sailors in English history, among whom were the famous John Hawkins and his young cousin, Francis Drake. Hawkins was the first English sea captain to trade with the Spanish colonies. In spite of Spanish laws the colonists were willing to trade with the English. When Spain therefore tried to close the overseas world to English expansion, and deny English ships the free use of the oceans, seamen like Drake and Hawkins struck back in a series of dashing attacks. They captured tall Spanish treasure ships, plundered rich towns on the Spanish Main, and boldly raided the ports of Spain herself, till the whole Spanish empire resounded with the blows



of the English sea dogs and the terrible 'El Draque'— which in Spanish means 'Dragon'.

Drake was, however, an explorer as well as a fighter. In 1580 he completed his greatest exploit. From Plymouth he set sail on one of the most remarkable voyages ever made. He crossed the Atlantic, followed the shore line of South America, passed through the dangerous Straits of Magellan, and sailed north along the west coast of South America. The Spaniards, believing that no one could come that way, were taken completely by surprise, and he had no difficulty in attacking the Spanish towns and loading his ship with treasure. Drake continued through uncharted seas up the coast of the Americas, then bravely turning his

craft westward across the Pacific Ocean, he visited the Spice Islands or East Indies, rounded the Cape of Good Hope and finally reached Plymouth after a voyage of nearly three years. In a single ship of 100 tons he had encircled the world with none of the charts, radio, or aids of navigation and science that sailors of modern small ships can take with them.

The English people were elated and hailed Drake as a national hero, but the Spanish king was outraged and demanded that Elizabeth execute Drake. Elizabeth, however, had secretly encouraged her daring sailors, and now she boldly took her stand, and rewarded Drake by knighting him on the quarter deck of his own ship. She thus defied the power of Spain and appealed to the English people to look to the sea for their defence and strength.

Philip of Spain now determined to crush England. The final event that led to open war was the execution of Mary Queen of Scots, which we have already mentioned in Unit Four. Mary was heir to the throne of England, and as a Roman Catholic she had looked to Spain for support. News of her execution aroused strong feeling in Spain, and Philip, with the Pope's blessing, prepared to invade England with the greatest fleet ever gathered in Europe up to that time—over five hundred fighting vessels with an army aboard.

(c) **The 'Invincible Armada' and its Defeat, 1588.** When the 'Invincible Armada' put to sea in July, 1588, so great was the number of ships that the sails seemed to cover the horizon. It was a sight to strike terror into the faint-hearted. The English sea dogs were confident, however. The Spaniards, who were better soldiers than sailors, always sought to come alongside an enemy and capture his ship by landing their well-trained infantry on his decks. But the English had developed new arts of navigation in their stormy northern seas. They had learned to tack, for instance. So their smaller but faster ships were able to keep their distance from the Spanish floating castles. They sailed rings around them, and battered them to pieces with broadsides. For days the two

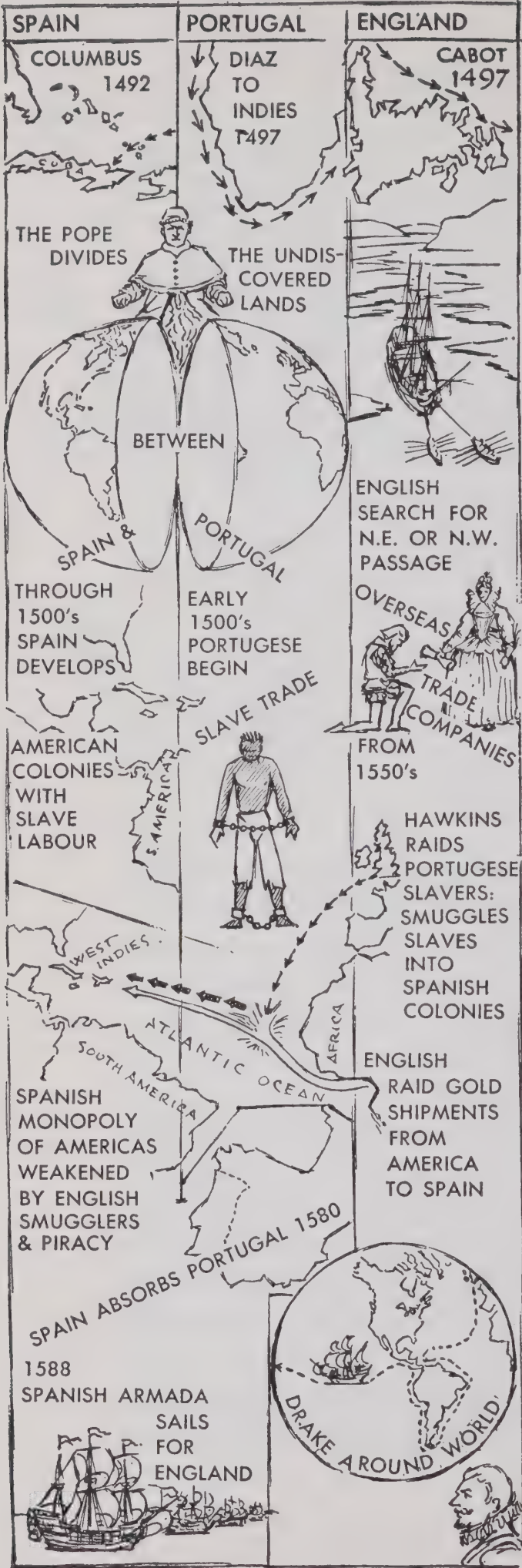


SEA DOGS IN ACTION

fleets sailed up the Channel, and the English pressed the attack. At one point they sent fireships among the Spanish vessels and drove them out to sea. As the fighting went on, one Spanish ship after another fell out. Finally a storm came up and the Spaniards were driven north. Some ships were wrecked. Less than half the great fleet rounded Scotland and got back to Spain. The Spanish fleet was crippled beyond repair.

The defeat of the Armada was one of the world's greatest naval battles and a turning point in English history. England no longer needed to fear Spain's claims to control the seas. Her companies could now trade freely and she could now even safely plant colonies in America. This was to happen in the next period, as we shall see, but already in Elizabeth's reign some beginnings were made that we should notice before we go on.

(d) **The Elizabethan Explorers and Merchants.** Drake was only one of the daring sea captains who made Elizabeth's reign



the greatest period of exploration in English history. Fired by a mixture of dauntless courage and endless curiosity, they struck out into the four quarters of the globe. Some of the greatest among them tried the perilous search for the North West Passage, a sea route to Asia around the north end of North America. Frobisher and Davis were two of these.

Seeking such a passage, they made their way up the dangerous strait between Greenland and Canada's Arctic islands, while Hudson, a little later, turned west from here to discover the great bay that now bears his name. The search for a North West Passage (which has only been found in modern times and can hardly be sailed at all) was doomed to fail in this early age. Yet this is the first chapter in the long struggle to open the Arctic which has become so important to Canada in later times.

Meanwhile, far from the northern wastes, Englishmen were turning eastward to Asia. Ralph Fitch crossed overland from the Mediterranean to India. His eight years of wandering, as far east as Siam, led finally to the establishment of direct English sea trade with India.

TIME CHART OF OVERSEAS EXPANSION

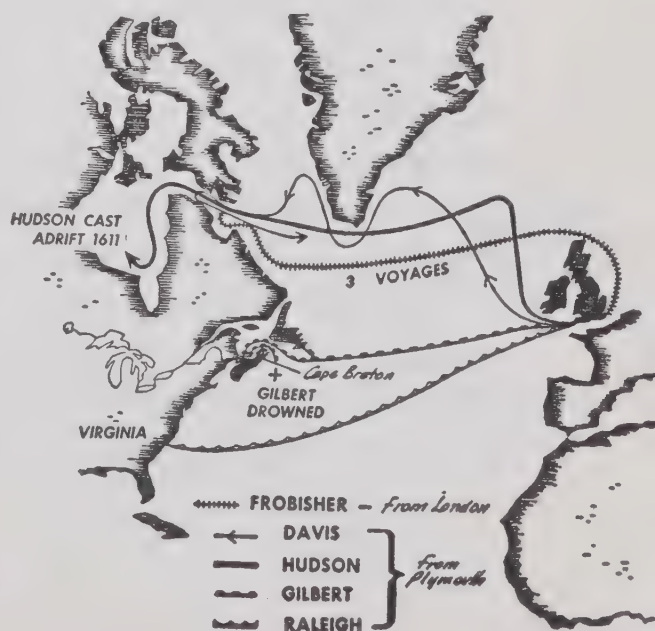
The trading ships sailed around the southern tip of Africa, and at times they had to fight their way past Spanish and Portuguese foes to reach their destination.

Still others, like Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh, tried to found colonies in America. Gilbert's attempt to place a colony in Newfoundland in 1583 failed, however; and so did that of his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, in Virginia a few years later. They did not know how difficult it was to plant settlements in a new world where European settlers did not understand how to live or support themselves. But if the first colonies failed, Elizabethan trading companies were much more successful.

The Muscovy Company organized the Russian trade and thrived upon it. The Levant Company prospered on the trade of the eastern end of the Mediterranean. And the greatest and most successful of all was the East India Company, founded on December 31, 1600, close to the end of Elizabeth's reign, to manage all the trade with India and the East Indies. These trading companies were usually granted a royal charter which gave them special privileges, and above all a monopoly, which meant that other Englishmen were forbidden to take part in the trade of the region named in the charter.

The monopolies were justified on the grounds that, because any new far-distant trade was costly and risky to develop, the merchants engaged in it deserved to be protected against rivals. In return, it was argued, all England would benefit if the trade succeeded.

Thus private trading companies, with their prized monopolies, served as instruments for carrying on England's expansion overseas at a time when the English government was not yet ready to take an active part. The Tudor age was laying the foundations for a world-wide empire. Tudor seamen had



TUDOR EXPLORATIONS

won the free use of the oceans, and Tudor explorers had visited distant lands. Tudor England had also produced the trading company, which in the next century would not only develop English trade but would play a great part in the successful founding of colonies.

2. Stuart Colonizing and Empire - Building, 1603 - 1714

While the Stuart kings were struggling with their Parliaments in England, an English empire was being built up overseas, for this was the first great period of founding English colonies. The present United States began with these vigorous English colonies, planted in the seventeenth century. So did the British West Indian colonies of today. Our own Nova Scotia first came under British rule in this period, while the vast northern and western stretches of Canada were first opened up by an English trading company founded in Stuart times, the powerful Hudson's Bay Company, that dates from 1670. And in the East, the modern Commonwealth country of India had its first links with the British Isles through the English East India Company of Stuart days. In short, if the Tudor sixteenth century cleared the ground for a British empire, it was the Stuart seventeenth century that actually began the building.

(a) **The Seventeenth-Century Trading Companies.** We have already mentioned the founding of the East India Company on the last day of 1600. For over two hundred and fifty years, until its charter was finally taken away by the crown in 1858, this company was the only English power in India, and this gives some idea of the importance of the Company in India's history.

When the Company started, it was intended to be only a trading company. Most of India was then ruled by a Moslem emperor, the Great Mogul, with his capital at Delhi. The Portuguese were already trading in India, and tried to keep the English out, but

the traders of the East India Company were well received by the Great Mogul, and soon the Company's trade was growing. The Company did not seek to conquer India or to send colonists there. It wished only to trade in certain port towns. In these places it was given the right by the Mogul Emperor to establish warehouses and trading posts, or 'factories' as they were called, where a small English staff lived. While its trade was protected the Company had no desire for territory, and so for a long time it was able to go on without holding a foot of ground outside its 'factories'.

Throughout the seventeenth century the company prospered and extended its trade inland. It had three important centres on the coast. For western India, the Surat factory near Bombay was begun in 1616. Madras, bought in 1639, controlled the trade with the south. On the northern part of the east coast, a factory was started on the Hooghly River in 1650 to look after the trade of the rich region of Bengal, and this led in 1696 to the establishment of Calcutta, the biggest English commercial centre in India. From these ports and others, great Company ships, or 'Indiamen', carried rich cargoes to England of such things as tea and spices, silks and cotton goods, precious eastern woods and Indian shawls. Indeed, the words 'shawl', 'muslin' and 'calico' came into the English language from the Indian trade of this time.

In its early years the Company had a bitter struggle with one rival, the Dutch East India Company, over the trade of the East Indies, or the 'Spice Islands' as they were called. The English Company lost its trading posts in these islands to the Dutch in 1623 after the massacre of Amboina. So the English kept to the mainland. The fact was that the Dutch at this time were a rising sea power no less than the English. They turned their main efforts to the East Indies, and so gained an empire in that region that lasted until after the Second





LOADING FURS FOR THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY

World War. The Dutch also established a base at the southern tip of South Africa at the the Cape of Good Hope to provision their ships travelling to the East Indies. Dutch navigators were also the first Europeans to get a glimpse of Australia and New Zealand, although they did not settle in these nearly empty southern lands.

In the early years after Charles II came back to the English throne, two other companies were chartered to trade—one in men and one in furs. In 1662 the Royal African Company was started with a monopoly of England's slave trade. It carried on the profitable but terrible business of supplying negro slaves to the rising plantations in America—for men still felt no shame in this trade in human beings—and for this purpose it established posts on the West African coast. The other company was established to trade in a very different part of the world. In 1670 a group at the court of Charles who called themselves the 'Gentlemen Adventurers Trading into Hudson's Bay' received a royal

charter, built posts about Hudson and James Bays, and soon began to reap rich returns from the monopoly of the fur trade. The charter of the Hudson's Bay Company covered all the lands draining into Hudson Bay, and for two hundred years it ruled a great part of what is now the Canadian Prairie Provinces and North. So the Company had an important place in Canadian history. It still continues as a commercial company—the only one of the seventeenth century companies which survives to the present day.

The most striking development of Stuart trading companies, however, came in connection with the founding of colonies in North America. Since Tudor times, England had claimed the central portion of the North American coastline. From Florida south lay the Spanish colonies, while French claims were farther north in the Gulf of St. Lawrence region. The coast which the English claimed was suitable for Europeans to settle, and indeed settlements would have to be made if these lands were to be held. So the English merchants began to form companies to plant settlements in America and to control their commercial life.

The first of these, the Virginia Company, was founded in James I's reign, only three years after Queen Elizabeth died. It received a royal charter to plant a colony in America, to govern it, and to control its trade. In 1607, just one year before the French established Quebec, the little settlement of Jamestown, named after James I, was begun. Jamestown turned out to be a permanent settlement, and with it the English colony of Virginia was born.

(b) The Founding of the English Colonies in America. The early years of Jamestown were hard. The little colony was struggling to root itself in an unknown soil, and unfortunately the first spot chosen was in hot, swampy and unhealthy surroundings. But the planting of tobacco proved to be the colony's salvation, for by taking to this new American crop, so much in demand in Europe, Virginia began to prosper. Meanwhile, however, the parent company had failed and in 1624 Virginia came under direct royal government. That is to say, the governor sent out to rule the colony was now appointed directly by the Crown, and

not by the Company. Yet before this an even more important step had been taken when the Company decided that the Virginians should have their own elected assembly to pass laws and levy taxes. This was the first beginning of representative government overseas, but soon it became the accepted rule, as it was established in all the other English colonies in America. From this source sprang not only the spirit of freedom that specially marked the British empire thereafter, but also the strong tradition of democracy that we find in the United States today.

About the time that Virginia began to flourish, another English colony was established farther north, in the area then becoming known as New England. Here in the lands of a company called the Plymouth Company a little band of Puritans, members of a small persecuted sect, came to plant a settlement where they might worship God as they pleased. At Plymouth, on the coast of what is now Massachusetts, on a cold autumn day in 1620, the group known to history as the Pilgrim Fathers landed from their ship, the *Mayflower*, to begin a grim struggle against cold and starvation in a hard new land. Yet somehow faith and courage won through, and the little colony at Plymouth survived.

Plymouth, however, was only a small venture compared to the powerful English colony of Massachusetts Bay, begun in 1629. This was settled by the main branch of the Puritan movement, then rising to its peak of strength in England. In fact, the Massachusetts Puritans became very independent, for they were able to buy the charter of the old Plymouth Company, and they carried it over the ocean, thus taking with them rights of government that gave them almost complete control of their own affairs. This was a long step towards democracy. From busy, fast-growing Massachusetts other colonies branched out in New England, including Connecticut and Rhode Island. Rhode Island was a pioneer in granting full religious toleration—the first colony of any country in America to do so.

The English settlements in America continued to increase, and to the 'company' colonies of New England and the 'royal' colony

of Virginia was added a third type, the 'proprietary' colony. In this case the king granted a charter for settlement not to a company but to a proprietor or owner, who thus had the right to control land grants and trade, and to appoint a governor. Of this kind were Maryland, founded in 1632, and the Carolinas and Pennsylvania, begun during Charles II's reign. Pennsylvania was granted by Charles to the Quaker, William Penn. New York and New Jersey, taken from the Dutch in 1664, were made into 'royal' colonies, and this completed an unbroken line of English colonies along the coast. No matter how the colonies started, a similar system of government by a governor, an appointed council, and an elected assembly took shape in them all. In the long run the 'royal' colony became more the general rule. Yet this did not alter the fact that the English colonies, through their elected assemblies, had a say in their own affairs and a degree of freedom unknown in the other great empires of that age, whether Spanish or Portuguese, Dutch or French.

Nor were these colonies with representative government founded only on the American mainland. Throughout the seventeenth century the English were also colonizing many island groups in the West Indies, and they carried the same ideas of government with them to these islands. Bermuda was settled in 1612, Barbados in 1624; Jamaica was seized from Spain in 1655; the Bahamas were annexed in 1670; and there were a number of others. The whole list is a long one. Moreover, these little islands were very highly prized as a field for English expansion because they produced a plentiful crop of sugar, a tropical product much sought in England and Europe.



The hope of profit in the 'sugar islands' was enough to send Englishmen to the West Indies. But why did they come in large numbers to the mainland colonies? There were several reasons: An important one, without doubt, was the hope of gain, both among the companies and proprietors who began the settlements, and among the people who went there. Some went with dreams of finding great riches such as had been found in the Spanish gold mines; some went to better themselves with a new start in a new world, and some to escape poverty or the loss of land due to the enclosure movement in England.

There was considerable unemployment in England during the early years of the seventeenth century, and some people argued that the colonies should be used as outlets for 'surplus' population—though today we would hardly call Stuart England overcrowded. At any rate, many poor people went to the colonies as 'indentured servants', which meant that they signed a contract to work after they arrived to pay off the cost of their passage.

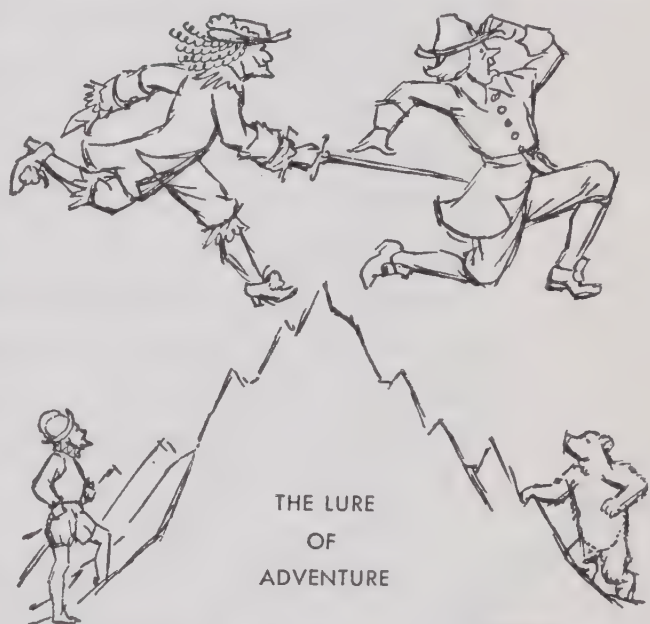
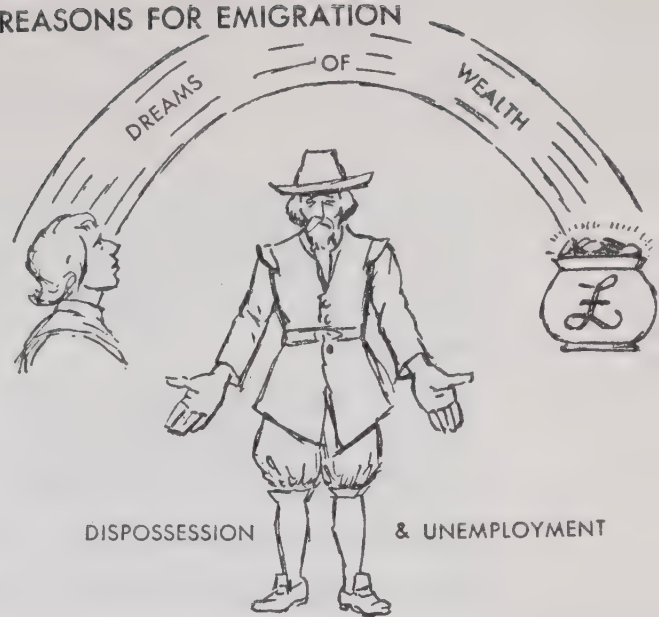
Religion was also a powerful motive. In the first half of the seventeenth century thousands of persecuted Puritans of low and high degree left England for the colonies, for there the English government was willing to let them preserve their faith. In the day of the Puritan republic, however, it was Anglicans who tended to come to America, while in Maryland English Roman Catholics found refuge, since that colony, founded by Lord Baltimore who was a Roman Catholic, gave them toleration. Quakers found haven in Pennsylvania—indeed, it welcomed all faiths. Furthermore, towards the close of the seventeenth century persecuted French Protestants, or Huguenots, were given refuge in the English colonies, as were later German and Dutch Protestant sects. Hence religious persecution in Europe did much to swell the English settlements in America in that harsh age.

Political reasons also played a part. As the English government came to see the value of colonies to national wealth and strength, it was increasingly ready to encourage them, and some builders of colonies certainly wanted to add to the power and glory of

REASONS FOR EMIGRATION

England. Nor should the spirit of adventure, stirring in England since Elizabethan times, be forgotten. Farmers and weavers, craftsmen and shopkeepers, were willing to strike out for the far horizons and a new life in a new land. The lure of freedom called to them as well. For the English colonies were freer than any other land, inheriting as they did the great liberties of England but adding to them unbounded opportunities and a sense of the equal rights of all men that could not be found in the Old World.

By the end of the seventeenth century England had not only thriving colonies in America but a flourishing colonial trade which continued to increase. The West Indies raised sugar on large slave-worked estates, or plantations. On similar plantations, the southern colonies of Virginia and the Carolinas grew tobacco, rice and dye-stuffs and these plantation products were usually sold in England. The middle colonies, including Pennsylvania and New York, grew big food crops to sell to the south or the West Indies, while the northern colonies of New England carried on some farming and lumbering, but lived chiefly by their

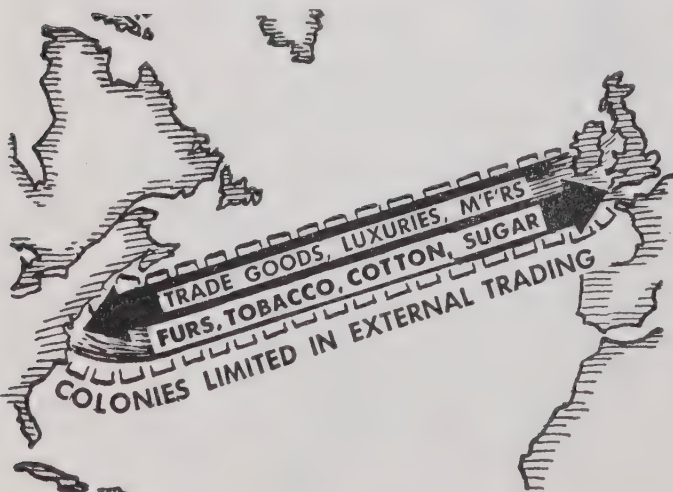


rich coastal fisheries and by trading down the coast or to the West Indies. New England, indeed, became a great trading and shipping region, and even began to compete with England in shipbuilding and trade.

(c) **England Begins to Organize her Empire.** With so many young growing colonies in the seventeenth century, England began to feel the need of organizing her empire. She was willing to let them run their own local affairs, but she wished to control their trade, and this is what she set out to do. The ideas behind the new organization are called mercantilism. The English empire was not the only one that was organized along the lines of mercantilism. The French, Dutch, and Spanish had similar ideas. In fact, mercantilism was the accepted commercial policy of the day.

The principal aim of mercantilism was to make the whole empire strong, especially in time of war, and to do this it was felt that the trade of the colonies should help the mother country, since that is why they had been founded and were defended by her. Accordingly laws were passed which required the colonies to buy their imports, such as manufactured goods, from the mother country. Also their important exports, such as the tobacco of the southern colonies, could be sent only to England. All the trade of the colonies also had to be carried in English or colonial ships. No foreign ship could enter a colonial port. So the empire's trade was closely regulated by mercantilism, even if its political life was free.

These ideas of mercantilism were put into effect in a series of laws known as the Navigation Acts, the first of which was passed in 1651, while the Puritans were ruling. When Charles II came back to the throne after the Civil War, his government did not change the policy, however. In fact it passed more acts along the same line, and



HOW THE MERCANTILE SYSTEM CONTROLLED COLONIAL TRADE

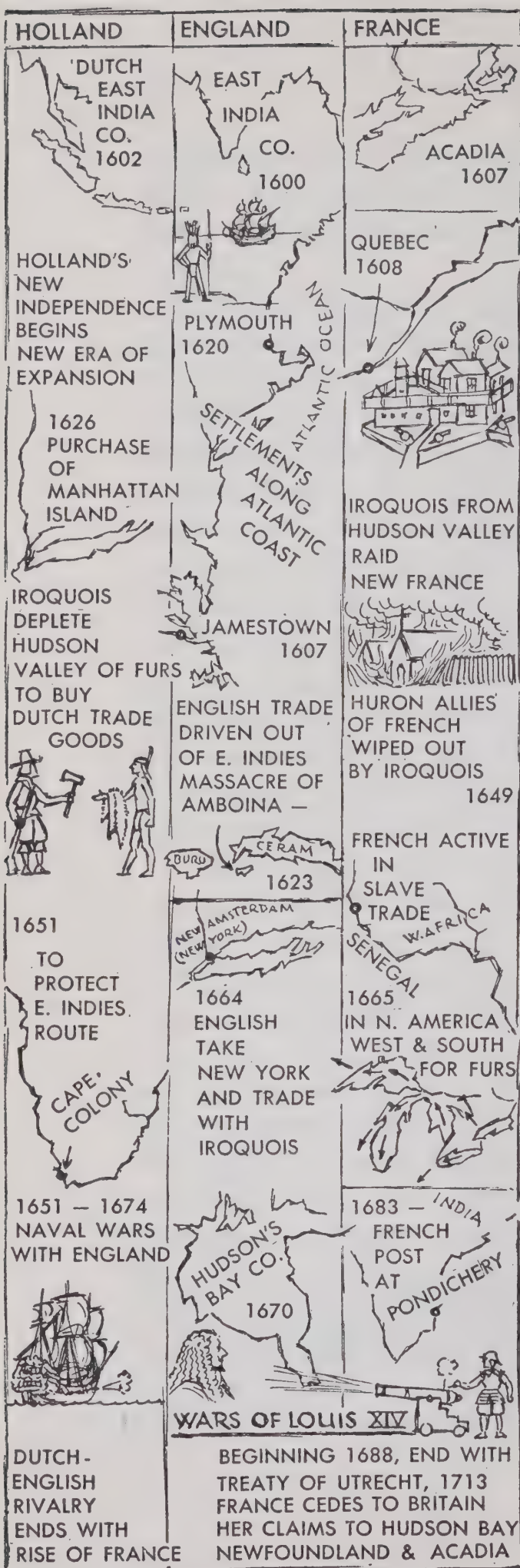
for almost two hundred years until 1849 the policy of mercantilism was in force. It is, therefore, a part of Canadian history, since all our older provinces which were colonies a century and a half ago came under it.

Although mercantilism favoured the mother country, the advantages were not all on one side. England was the best market for the colonies and she also gave them a monopoly in the English market. For example, she did not buy tobacco from foreign countries, or even allow it to be grown in England. In addition, the colonies received various forms of aid, sometimes in cash or 'bounties', to encourage them to produce certain things which England wanted. New England's young shipping interests also grew rapidly, free from foreign rivalry. The protection from the British navy was also important to the colonies. In general, therefore, the Navigation Acts probably did little harm to the colonies in their early years, and they may even have done some good. Furthermore, the other empires of the day were built even more strictly on the lines of mercantilism, but without giving their colonies elected assemblies such as the English colonies had to control their local affairs.

3. The British Empire in the Eighteenth Century

(a) **A Century of Colonial Wars and Rivalries, 1660-1763.** When the first Navigation Acts were passed in the seventeenth century, England was actually entering on a new period of colonial wars and rivalries that was to last a hundred years, and that was to bring both remarkable expansion and later disaster. In the sixteenth century, before the Armada was defeated, the great rival overseas had been Spain. In this new century of conflict it was to be first Holland, and then for a much longer time, France.

The first Navigation Act passed in 1651 had been chiefly aimed



TIME CHART: 1600-1713

at the Dutch, for they were very vigorous rivals on the sea. The Act aimed to drive Dutch ships out of the English colonial trade which they had entered while England had been busy with her civil war. In the next twenty years there were no fewer than three short naval wars with the Dutch, and some very hard battles were fought. England produced one great sea captain in this period, Robert Blake, a Puritan soldier turned admiral.

It was really the rise of French power that made Holland fall back however. Under Louis XIV, who reigned for over half a century after 1660, France rapidly became the mightiest nation on the continent. Louis XIV was greatly interested in the French empire and he was soon encouraging every part of it. For trade with India, a French East India Company was organized. In America, the French developed their own West Indian sugar islands, and at the same time put new life and strength into the little colony of New France on the St. Lawrence. The famous Intendant Talon was sent out to Canada, and emigration from France was encouraged. From Quebec and Montreal the French reached west-

A TIME CHART OF SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY IMPERIAL CONFLICTS

ward after the fur trade into the heart of the continent and in the north they challenged the English on Hudson Bay. They also claimed Newfoundland and were active in the fisheries there.

Thus when war broke out between England and France in Europe it at once brought conflict in America. There were bloody raids on both sides of the border, sharp fighting in Newfoundland and Hudson Bay, and an unsuccessful English attack on Quebec in 1690, where the fierce old governor, Frontenac, defied the English admiral who had sailed his fleet up the river.

In those days of sailing ships and travel by foot, wars as well as everything else moved slowly. Fighting could not be continuous, and sometimes there were long intervals between campaigns, especially if armies had to be sent overseas and fleets collected. It is not surprising, therefore, that this first part of the conflict with France went on for over twenty-five years before a real peace settlement was made in 1713, in the Treaty of Utrecht. Britain up to this time had had the better of the contest, thanks to the British fleet and to the sweeping victories in Europe by the great British general, Marlborough. In the Treaty of Utrecht, therefore, Britain made some valuable gains, especially in America, and these were later of great importance to Canada. Acadia, which had changed hands more than once, now became the British province of Nova Scotia. The French gave up their claims in the Hudson Bay region, and in Newfoundland also, except for fishing rights off the island's west coast. At the same time Britain kept the fortress rock of Gibraltar, captured during the war, and so began a great British naval base controlling the entrance to the Mediterranean.

For many years after 1713, during the days of Sir Robert Walpole, Britain and France remained at peace in Europe. In their empires overseas, however, their interests crossed and clashed repeatedly. The trouble was that they were expanding in the same regions. They competed for the fur trade deep in America, in the fisheries off its coasts, in the markets of India, and in the commerce of the sugar islands. Finally it seemed that one or the other must be driven from the field.



LOUISBOURG

The French displayed great energy in strengthening their empire after 1713, and were carefully directed from the royal court of France. We can still see the signs of this energy in the great stone fortresses built at Louisbourg in Cape Breton, at Ticonderoga, at Niagara, and other places. The best engineers of the day planned these remarkable French strongholds, and vast sums of money were poured into them. The British also built some fortresses, but their real strength was of another kind, and in an all-out struggle they proved to have the advantage. Their American colonies were far more developed and thickly settled. British overseas business interests, sea trade, and sea power were a good deal stronger than those of France. Furthermore, the rigid central control of the French empire, ruled by an absolute king, turned out to be a weakness in the long run when pitted against the British empire, with its free-spirited Parliament, its powerful and experienced men of commerce, and its self-reliant colonies.

In India, the collapse of the old Mogul Empire had much to do with the rise of British-French friction after 1713. India had been plunged into a confusion of warring kingdoms and quarrelling rulers. The rival British and French East India Companies sought to maintain their trade by making alliances with various princes, and often found themselves in Indian disputes on opposite sides. Hence they sought all the harder to win strong allies, and the French, thanks to able leadership, were particularly successful in their efforts. Indian quarrels soon led to armed clashes. By 1750 it looked as if the French and their allies would be able to drive the British completely out of south India.

Meanwhile in North America conflict was also taking shape. The French had built the great fortress of Louisbourg, which guarded the Gulf of St. Lawrence and was the gateway to New France. The British, however, and especially the New England

colonies, felt that the fortress was a threat to Nova Scotia and New England. While the French were planning from Louisbourg to regain Nova Scotia, the British were deciding that Louisbourg must go. At the same time trouble was brewing in the heart of the continent. The French had built a vast fur-trade empire south of the Great Lakes behind the English colonies. But now the westward tide of English settlement was crossing the Appalachian mountain barrier and reaching into the Ohio Valley. If English settlers once became established there, the whole French wilderness empire would lie open before them. France moved to fortify the Ohio. The fate of North America hung in the balance.

The threatening storm soon burst. A few shots fired in the Ohio wilds and in Nova Scotia quickly swelled into the thunder of the Seven Years' War of 1756-1763. In Europe this war drew in all the leading powers of the continent, but elsewhere it was the deciding round in the struggle of French and British overseas empires. In India, after a bad beginning, the British gained the victory through the startling successes of Robert Clive, a young East India Company servant. In America, also after a bad beginning, the British took the chief French forts, including Louisbourg. Finally Wolfe's capture of Quebec in 1759 spelled the fall of New France and the end of French rule in Canada. All around the globe British arms had triumphed.

The failure of France overseas came in part because she was so heavily engaged in fighting in Europe. But far more important was the stranglehold on the oceans won by the British navy and skilfully used by William Pitt, Britain's great war minister. Thanks to supremacy at sea, Britain was safe from the war at home. But more than this, she could hamper France overseas, while freely building up her own forces there. Indeed, one could say that the fate of both the dark Ohio forests and the sun-baked plains of India was decided by the far-ranging fleets of this island sea power.

When peace was made by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, French imperial power was broken. Britain not only gained Canada and

FRANCE

RECOVERING AS
GREATEST POWER
IN
EUROPE
FROM 1713 ON

ENDEAVOURS TO
CONFINED BRITISH
COLONIES
TO COAST
BY CHAIN
OF INLAND
FORTS



IN INDIA DUPEIX
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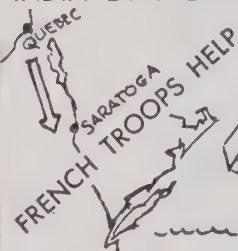
1756 — SEVEN YEARS' WAR

FRANCE
LOSES
CANADA
AND
INDIA BY THE TREATY OF PARIS — 1763



MONTREAL

QUEBEC



1793 1815

NAPOLEONIC WARS

FINAL
TRIUMPH
OF BRITISH
SEA POWER
OVER
FRENCH
LAND POWER



NAPOLEON

BRITAIN

SLAVE TRADE
IN THE SUGAR
ISLANDS
SUFFERS
FROM FRENCH
COMPETITION



IN HUDSON BAY
BRITISH FUR SOURCES
CUT OFF BY FRENCH
INLAND POSTS

BY 1750
BRITISH
INFLUENCE
IN INDIA
AT A
NEW LOW



INDIA

MADRAS

MADRAS

PONDICHERY

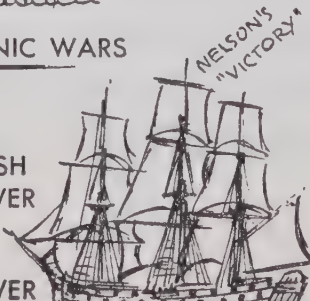
GEN. WOLFE



FIRST
BRITISH
EMPIRE
AT PEAK

1776 AMERICAN
REVOLUTION

BRITAIN LOSES
13 AMERICAN
COLONIES, 1783



TIME CHART: 1713-1815

new holdings in West Africa and the West Indies, but added also the rich eastern Indian province of Bengal to her empire. Bengal had fallen when Clive overthrew its Indian ruler, an ally of France, who had destroyed the English settlement at Calcutta. The province was put under the East India Company, and this was a move of great significance. It marked the beginning of Britain's Empire of India, and marked as well a notable change whereby a private company formerly interested only in trade, was gradually altered into an agency of the British government with the vast task of ruling India.

(b) The Growth of Britain's American Colonies. While these wars and rivalries were going on, the British empire in America had been growing in every way. One new colony, Georgia, was added in the first half of the eighteenth century, the thirteenth of Britain's American colonies to be established. Started by General George Oglethorpe, Georgia was planned to give poor debtors and other unfortunates a new start in life. Today in Savannah, the parks laid out under Oglethorpe's direction in the 1730's are still a beautiful feature of the city.

TIME CHART OF THE ANGLO-FRENCH STRUGGLE FOR EMPIRE

But the chief growth in Britain's American empire during the first half of the eighteenth century was in wealth and population rather than in new colonies. New immigrants poured in, especially after the Treaty of Utrecht, not only from England, but also from Germany and Ireland, where the harsh laws after the Revolution of 1688 drove many to seek new homes overseas. The sea coast was filled in and the settlements stretched back to the mountains. In the south along the coast great plantations with slave labour developed. In the north the seaport towns grew in size and the merchants sent their ships not only up and down the American coast, but to Europe and Africa.

Philadelphia, New York and Boston were becoming thriving cities and some of their citizens, like the famous Benjamin Franklin, were known on both sides of the Atlantic. Back from the coast the settlements were spreading towards the mountains, with little pioneer farms cutting into the forest, and in the north New England's fishing fleets were pushing busily into the rich banks around Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. British trade was rapidly expanding and the colonies grew with it. From their first struggling beginnings a century earlier, the Thirteen Colonies had grown by 1763 into something like a British American nation.

(c) The American Revolution and the Break-up of the 'First Empire'. In 1763 the British Empire in America was at the height of its glory. Stretching from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic, and with the French gone, it seemed to have overcome all its dangers. And yet within a dozen years it was to face disaster. This British Empire, which was largely built around the wealthy and prosperous Thirteen Colonies, was torn apart when they broke away from it during the American Revolution. Thus people often speak of the 'First British Empire' before the Revolution, to distinguish it from the empire that had to be built almost anew after the loss of the American colonies.

In 1763, Britain's Thirteen Colonies were loyal and proud of their freedom and rights of self-government, but there were also signs of discontent which were soon to flare up into a real crisis.

Now that the French danger was gone the American colonies felt little need for British protection, and they disliked the restrictions that British mercantilism clamped on their trade. They were now so far advanced that the regulations of mercantilism often seemed far more a hindrance than a help. Besides, with the passage of time the colonies had grown much less English. They were now, in fact, 'British American' in their outlook, and so were less willing to accept English control. Their strong spirit of freedom had sprung both from the English liberties which they had inherited and from their own free land of opportunity, and they were not ready to be ruled against their will.

The British government did not understand this, and with good intentions but very bad judgement, it set out after the Seven Years' War to knit the vastly enlarged British empire more tightly together. The result was disastrous. Britain's attempts to enforce the Navigation Acts more strictly immediately aroused opposition in America. Then too, the British government decided to raise part of the cost of empire defence by taxing the colonies. Parliament had never before taxed the colonies, and when the Stamp Act was passed in 1765, rioting broke out all along the coast from Maine to Georgia. The colonists insisted that only their own assemblies could impose their taxes, and firmly opposed this seeming 'British tyranny'. The Stamp Act was soon withdrawn, but relations were never quite the same again.

In the next ten years there were several crises, brought on by the unwise actions of George III and the British Parliament, and encouraged by those Americans who wanted independence. At first they were few, but their numbers grew with each fresh difficulty. Tempers flared, and clashes followed as troops were brought in to back up British officials. For instance, in 1773 a quarrel over the tax on tea led to the famous 'Boston Tea Party', when Americans, dressed as Indians, dumped tea brought in by British ships into Boston harbour. By 1775 the colonies were in armed revolt. The American Revolution was under way.

There were still large numbers of Americans who did not want

to break completely with Britain, but after actual fighting had gone on for a year, the colonies in 1776 drew up the world-famed Declaration of Independence. The fact was that in those days American independence was almost the only possible way out. The colonies wanted to rule themselves; they felt the stirrings of nationalism. But the British empire had not as yet worked out a system whereby a colony could gain self-government without breaking the tie with the motherland. In the eighteenth



century the Americans could not find complete self-government within the empire and so they left it. In a later age Canadians and others would be able to find freedom while growing within the British empire and so they stayed there—and, indeed, helped to mould it into the modern Commonwealth of Nations.

By 1779 American determination and the blunders of George III's government had turned the tide of war against the British. Seeing this, Britain's rival, France, still smarting under her losses

and hoping to regain some of them, jumped into the Revolution on the American side. Other countries as well were glad to strike a blow at a too powerful Britain. They too entered the conflict, until the American Revolution was no longer a colonial revolt but a world war. The final blow came when the British fleet lost control of the sea along the American coast for a few months, and the British army without hope of supplies had to surrender at Yorktown in Virginia. George III and his government were by this time being bitterly criticized in England too. They could do nothing but acknowledge the independence of the Thirteen Colonies and make a treaty with the new United States of America. This they did in 1783.

(d) **The Beginnings of a 'Second British Empire'.** The loss in America was grave indeed. Yet Britain had defeated her foes at sea, defended Gibraltar and the British West Indies successfully, and in India actually gained a good deal more territory as a result of battles with Indian princes whom French agents had stirred up against the East India Company. Thus the American Revolution, serious as it was, was not a complete disaster for the British empire.

Besides, in North America itself, a number of colonies still remained in the empire, among them Quebec and Nova Scotia, which had not joined the Thirteen Colonies in the Revolution for several reasons. In the case of Nova Scotia, the power of the British navy based at Halifax, the absence of the strong grievances found in the Thirteen Colonies, and the importance for the colony of British trade, all combined to keep the province loyal. In Quebec the small group of English-speaking merchants were tied in the same way to British trade and British markets. As for the French-speaking majority in Quebec, they had little desire to join with their old enemies, the American colonists, particularly when the British government had granted them protection for their religion and French customs in the Quebec Act of 1774.

The Revolution led, in fact, to an expansion in these northern colonies, for it brought to them a flood of settlers who were

ardently British. These were the Loyalists, who came from the Thirteen Colonies because they had not wanted to break with Britain. Many of them had fought on the British side during the Revolution, and many had suffered mistreatment and loss of property. Large numbers went to the British West Indies or to the British Isles, but many thousands moved north.

They flocked into Nova Scotia in such numbers that a whole new

province, New Brunswick, was carved out of it. Similarly, their movement into Quebec led to its division into two new provinces, Upper and Lower Canada. And in each of these cases, the fact that the Loyalists had been used to elected assemblies in the old colonies meant that they were granted representative government in the new provinces.

Thus the coming of the Loyalists to their new homes in Canada brought great changes, and this was only one of the signs that a 'Second British Empire' was already rising out of the 'First'. Britain's expansion overseas was not finished by any means. It was only entering a new stage—a stage that would carry it farther and farther around the world, and raise a new empire much larger than that which had been lost.



UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS

Learn by Doing

1. Make a sand-table display depicting the defeat of the Spanish Armada. (1, c)
2. Four committees make brief reports to the class on the following British Trading Companies: The East India Company, The Hudson's Bay Company, the Royal African Company and the Virginia Company. (2, a)
3. Place a map of the world on the bulletin board. Using coloured yarn, show the areas of the world from which Britain received goods. (2, a)
4. Thirteen pupils represent the early thirteen American colonies. Each points out his area on a map and outlines the manner in which his colony was started. (2, b)
5. Prepare a few excerpts from a diary which Robert Clive might have kept concerning the war with France in India. (3, a)
6. A panel may discuss the wisdom or foolishness of the British policy of mercantilism and the reasons why the American colonies objected to it. (2, c and 3, c)

Facts to Know

1. In what ways was the Age of Discovery particularly important to Britain? (1, b)
2. Match the explorers with the area which they visited. (1, a)

Drake	—	Newfoundland
Cabot	—	The North-West Passage
Hudson	—	Around the World
Davis	—	Virginia
Raleigh	—	a northern Bay
3. (a) Outline ways in which France began to exert her power during the reign of Louis XIV.
 (b) Where were Britain and France beginning to clash?
 (c) What were the results of these clashes? (3, a)

4. Why were the British able to defeat the French in the New World? (3, a)
5. (a) What were the results of the American Revolution? (3, c)
(b) Why was it more difficult to work out a solution to the problems in 1775 than it might be today?

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UNIT NINE

THE SECOND BRITISH EMPIRE AND THE BEGINNING OF THE COMMONWEALTH

1. *The Beginnings of the Second Empire*
2. *The Second British Empire Grows in
Population and Self-Government*
3. *New Nations Begin to Emerge*
4. *The Dependent Empire*
5. *The Dominions and the Empire Face
New Problems*

When the Loyalists were scattered from the Thirteen Colonies to their new homes we say that a Second British Empire began. This name may seem strange in one way, for there were many colonies in this Second Empire which had already been in the First, such as Quebec, Nova Scotia and the British West Indies.

There are, however, good reasons for the name Second British Empire. One is that since the Thirteen Colonies had been so important in the First Empire, the Empire after the Revolution was bound to be very different and in many ways new. Already we have seen how the coming of the Loyalists expanded and changed the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia. In the very

same years, as we shall see in a moment, new lands were also being discovered in the Pacific out of which were to come Australia, New Zealand, and Canada's west coast province of British Columbia. Even in territory, therefore, the Second Empire was to have much that was new.

It was new, however, in another way. In the Second Empire, Britain changed her policy of controlling the colonies, so that they gained more freedom and self-government. This change did not come right away. In fact, immediately after the Revolution, the control over the trade and government of the colonies was made tighter than before. But this was a passing stage. By the middle of the nineteenth century, the leading colonies like Nova Scotia and Upper and Lower Canada were gaining more self-government, and they found that they could stay in the Empire and still obtain freedom and control of their own affairs.

Thus the grievances which had caused the American Revolution did not develop in the colonies of the Second Empire. The First Empire produced revolution and angry discord; the Second, evolution and friendly partnership. And out of the Second Empire there finally developed, in the twentieth century, the Commonwealth of self-governing nations which we know today.

1. The Beginnings of the Second Empire

(a) **New Lands in the Pacific.** Even before the American Revolution a great English discoverer, Captain James Cook, had begun his explorations in the Pacific that uncovered the mysterious continent of Australia and the far-off islands of New Zealand. Between 1768 and 1770 he carefully charted the coasts of New Zealand and the eastern rim of Australia, going on beyond the early Dutch discoveries, which had never been followed up. Between 1772 and his death seven years later in the Hawaiian Islands, Captain Cook completed a

voyage around Australia, the first in history, penetrated the cold Antarctic seas, mapped out most of the island groups of the Pacific, and sailed up the unknown north-western coast of North America right to the Arctic ocean. Truly, this Royal Navy captain had opened the Pacific world to Britain.

Thanks to Cook, the western coast of what is now Canada had been put on the map for the first time. Some years later in 1792, Captain George Vancouver carried his work further. Vancouver sailed around the great island that bears his name and carefully charted the coastal waters of what is now British Columbia. British ships began to call on this coast to trade with the Indians for rich sea-otter furs. Soon fur traders crossed overland from eastern Canada to found permanent posts. A new region had been opened up, and here would rise Canada's future province of British Columbia.

Cook's work also led to the settlement of Australia, which he had claimed for Britain. He had highly recommended the eastern coast around Botany Bay, near where Sydney stands today. In 1788 the British government decided to plant a colony there. This was a peculiar kind of colony however, for it was to be settled by convicts. In that age Britain sent many of her lesser criminals to colonies overseas, a practice called 'transportation'. Because of the harsh laws of the day, eighteenth-century British prisons were crowded with petty offenders, and transportation relieved this overcrowding. The loss of the Thirteen Colonies had ended





CONVICTS AT BOTANY BAY

transportation to America, and so a new prison settlement was begun in distant empty Australia.

In 1799, the 'First Fleet', laden with men and women prisoners, guards and troops, reached Botany Bay, and from that time on the prison colony known as New South Wales grew fairly steadily. Gradually free settlers came to New South Wales from Britain, especially when it was found that this sunny land was excellent for sheep farming. Convicts also became free settlers when their sentences were up. Because many of these convicts were hardly criminals at all, by our standards, but unfortunate victims of poverty and cruel laws, they often 'made good' in the new colony. Hence New South Wales, despite its grim beginning, started to thrive. By 1815 it was a flourishing and expanding colony. New Zealand, however, remained uncolonized until some years later, though British traders and British missionaries established themselves in the islands among the native Maori people.

(b) **The Empire and the Struggle with Napoleon.** While Australia was being founded Britain was approaching another long struggle with France. The French Revolution that began in 1789 led four years later to war between Britain and France,



THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR
(After the painting by Turner)

and this conflict went on with only one short break for almost a quarter of a century, until 1815. The war in Europe, of course, saw the rise and fall of the great French dictator, Napoleon, but in the world abroad it also brought another era of rapid British expansion. Though the French armies swept the continent of Europe, British sea power once more kept the island kingdom secure. The Royal Navy won its most dazzling successes, against a ring of enemies, and one by one defeated every opposing fleet.

Off the coast of Napoleon's Europe a "distant line of storm-beaten ships" kept ceaseless watch, day in and day out during the war, ready to engage any enemy battle squadrons that dashed for the open sea. Thus Britain's great sea trade and her rising world industry continued to grow in safety. Lord Nelson, the greatest of all British seamen, met and shattered the French fleets even though he had to chase one to the West Indies and back. He gained his mightiest victory at Trafalgar in 1805, where the thundering broadsides of his outnumbered but brilliantly handled warships destroyed the combined might of the French and Spanish navies. Britain won, and Britain kept, complete command of the oceans. As a result French dreams of reviving an empire over-

seas came to nought. Instead, more French possessions fell to Britain; and because the power of France in Europe brought other nations into the war on the French side, they too lost colonies to the Second British Empire.

In India, the East India Company soon found itself at war with Indian rulers who were allied to France and were supported by French-trained troops. Napoleon had planned to conquer India himself, but Nelson's fleet kept him from ever reaching there. The Duke of Wellington, the final conqueror of Napoleon, first made his name in the Indian wars of this period. At their end the British had won out over their foes, and so extended their rule over much of southern and central India and up the Ganges Valley beyond Bengal.

The Dutch had joined France in the struggle. Their posts in Ceylon off the southern tip of India and at the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa, on the sea route to the East, offered dangerous bases for the French designs on India. British forces therefore attacked and seized them. The Dutch also lost their chief possessions in the East Indies and Dutch Guiana in South America. While France controlled Spain and Portugal, their possessions too fell before British attack.

In North America, on the other hand, the British had to turn to defence. In 1812, while Britain was still engaged in the vast struggle with Napoleon, the United States declared a war of her own, and invaded Canada. The Americans had grown angry with British interference with their sea trade during the Napoleonic Wars. Britain and Napoleon had each declared a blockade of the other, but since Britain controlled the oceans it was only the British blockade that affected the Americans. Hence they sought to strike back at Britain by attacking her exposed Canadian colonies, which many Americans still hoped to add to the United States.

Canada was saved from conquest by a determined defence and poor American leadership; but perhaps the biggest factor again, was British sea power. The Royal Navy clamped down a tight

blockade on the American coast itself, carried reinforcements to Canada, and attacked Washington from the sea. At the same time the Americans won some striking single-ship battles and resisted British efforts to invade the United States. So the War of 1812 closed in 1814 with neither side having made any gains—but with Canada still firmly within the British Empire.

In other parts of the world the empire had notably expanded by the time the great French war ended in 1815. Besides the gains in India proper, the peace treaty left Ceylon in British hands. The former Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope also remained British, and this was the beginning of another Commonwealth country, the Union of South Africa. Britain kept Singapore, a former outpost of the Dutch East Indies and in South America bought part of Guiana from the Dutch to establish British Guiana. On the other hand, it is equally remarkable that Britain returned many of her overseas conquests: the East Indies islands and the rest of Guiana to the Dutch, and the West Indies islands to the French. The fact was that Britain sought a lasting peace, and did not want to leave a mass of resentment to breed new trouble in the future. The possessions she did keep were largely held as naval bases to protect her world commerce: for example, Malta in the Mediterranean, Singapore and French Mauritius in the Indian Ocean—and the Cape of Good Hope itself. Here the British were not interested in the lands of the Dutch settlers in South Africa but in the magnificent harbour of Cape Town.

Thus by 1815, in place of the Thirteen Colonies, a broad new empire had been won not only by war but by exploration and peaceful settlement. The West Indies, India and Canada remained from the First British Empire, but they had been much expanded in the Second Empire and to them had been added Australia, South Africa, a claim to New Zealand, and many lesser possessions besides. The Thirteen Colonies had been the main areas of British settlement in the old empire. Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand became the chief centres of settlement in the new. In the next age they would rise to great self-

governing Dominions and lay the basis of our modern Commonwealth.

2. The Second British Empire Grows in Population and Self-Government

1815 may not be the first year in the nineteenth century, but it marks the beginning of a hundred years of peaceful growth that were to make a remarkable change in the Empire. In this century a new wave of British settlement overseas began. People poured out from the British Isles to Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand. For a time after 1850 this tide of migration decreased, but it rose again higher than ever in the 1890's, and the great new wave that ran unchecked till 1914 not only contained people from the British Isles but also many others from European countries, all anxious to find homes in new lands beyond the sea.

So the important colonies grew through the nineteenth century. But with their growth in population they also grew, as we shall see, in self-government, and this was perhaps the greatest change of all. By the end of the century they were coming to be, not merely colonies but young nations, loyal to the British Crown and yet each in control of its own affairs. This was something new in the world. An empire based on freedom was taking shape.

(a) The Industrial Revolution and the Great Migration. There were several reasons for the great migration which filled in the empty lands of the Second British Empire. With Napoleon defeated by 1815, a century of freedom from world wars began—the time of the Pax Britannica, or British Peace, as it has been called. Thanks to the British Navy's control of the seas, wars were kept from spreading, and the ships of all nations moved freely around the world. Settlers could travel across the oceans, and new lands could grow in safety. Steamships and railways were invented, and trade and travel increased enormously. At

the same time Britain's world leadership in industry meant that the British Isles had money to invest in developing the colonies, and also the British Isles were a ready market for the goods the colonies could produce. British capital built Canadian railways and opened South African mines; Britain's factory towns consumed Canadian grain and New Zealand mutton; Britain's mills were fed with Indian cotton and Australian wool. So the Industrial Revolution in Britain encouraged the growth and prosperity of the overseas Empire.

The Industrial Revolution was responsible, however, for British migration in another way. If it produced wealth and power, it also produced poverty and suffering. Many people left the British Isles after 1815 to escape from unhappy conditions. The coming of the Industrial Revolution had affected both town and countryside. It had driven many of the poorer classes of Britain from their little farms and cottage plots, herded multitudes of them into drab, overcrowded, unhealthy factory towns, and brought them long hours of dangerous work together with sudden desperate periods of unemployment. It is no wonder that many people decided to leave Britain for a brighter future in new lands across the sea. There in 'the colonies' they might breathe clean air again. They could own their own farms, and live in security and independence. No wonder, indeed, that poor English labourers, dispossessed Scottish crofters, or famine-ridden Irish peasants turned eagerly to emigration.

Not all the British emigrants after 1815 came from the poorest classes. Many were skilled workmen or farmers, attracted by the new opportunities to be found in the fast-growing colonies. Some were middle class merchants and business men with money to invest in the new lands, and some again were professional men, gentlemen farmers, and half-pay officers who had retired from the army. All these hoped to live more comfortably in a less crowded and less expensive colony, where landed estates might be had almost for the asking. As time went on, and the worst evils of the Industrial Revolution passed, the emigrants left Britain more

The Second British Empire

for gain than from necessity. The number of very poor settlers declined. Still, conditions in Britain's drab, smoky factory towns continued to encourage many to leave, especially in bad times. And so we may say that the Industrial Revolution had a great deal to do with the whole nineteenth-century wave of British settlement.

If the Industrial Revolution encouraged people to settle overseas, it also made it much easier for them to go. The coming of ocean steamships after 1840 made travel much easier, and the building of railways in the new lands after 1850 not only provided work for newly arrived immigrants, but also opened up distant inland areas for settlement. In Canada, for example, the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway was of great importance in opening the western prairies to the flood of settlement that poured in between 1896 and 1914.

Of course, in the earlier part of the nineteenth century, railways and steamships were not developed, and even when ocean steamships did come in most immigrants at first could not

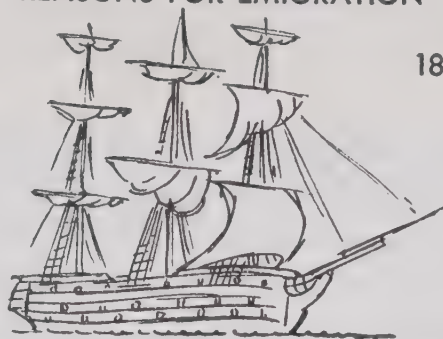
REASONS FOR EMIGRATION

1815 TO 1914

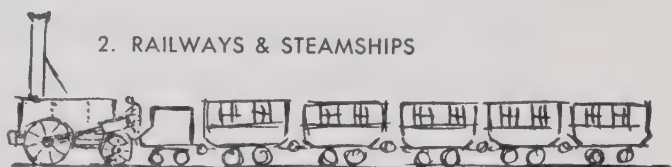
1. BRITAIN KEPT

THE SEA LANES

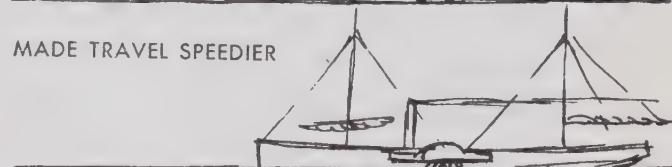
SAFE



2. RAILWAYS & STEAMSHIPS



MADE TRAVEL SPEEDIER



3. HOME INDUSTRIES

NEEDED

COLONIAL MARKETS



4. LONG HOURS,

POOR PAY,

UNHEALTHY

SURROUNDINGS



5. A HIGH BIRTH RATE

PRODUCED

OVERCROWDING

6. OPPORTUNITIES FOR
ADVENTURE, ADVANCEMENT
& INVESTMENT
IN THE COLONIES



7. THE COLONIES NEEDED LABOUR

afford to use them, and continued to travel in sailing ships. Such a voyage under sail took weeks to Canada and months to Australia, and often brought terrible hardships to poor people crammed into dank, airless holds, ill-fed, and powerless to check the spread of disease. Sometimes dozens died before the voyage was ended. Such conditions would not be allowed now.

Nevertheless, as the century went on, the progress of steam and steel steadily improved the conditions for migrating. In general, industrial progress helped tie the British Empire more firmly together. Not only the steamship but electricity and the invention of the postage stamp brought Britain and the colonies into much closer contact. The Atlantic cable was laid in the 1860's, and other lines soon spread out from Britain. Then, in the early twentieth century the coming of wireless improved communications even more. In short, not only migration and the investment of capital from Britain, but the steady march of invention linked the British Empire together more closely than it ever had been before.

(b) The Coming of Responsible Government. As the British Empire grew in strength it also grew in freedom. In 1849 the Navigation Acts were repealed, and after almost two centuries the restrictions of mercantilism were ended. The victory of the free trade movement in Britain had brought this striking change. Because of Britain's leadership in industry, her powerful manufacturers did not need tariffs to protect them, and asked only that their commerce with the world be freed from every restraint. Accordingly, between 1846 and 1849 the whole system of mercantilism was done away with, and the colonies as well as Britain were able to trade freely with the rest of the world.

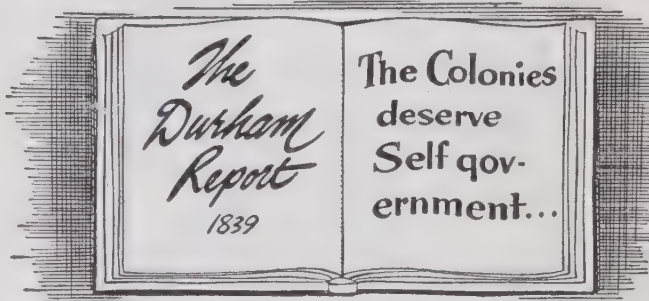
This change encouraged Britain to give the colonies more self-government, since she was no longer anxious to control their trade. In fact, this willingness to give more self-government was even connected in some quarters with a belief that colonies were no longer of much value. Britain, it was argued, no longer needed them as sure markets and safe sources of raw material; and the

argument drawn from the American Revolution was increasingly heard; namely, that colonies were bound to grow up to independence, and should be helped on their way. By no means did everyone in Britain hold these views. Nevertheless, they helped to encourage the idea of granting the colonies self-government—and by this time the colonies were beginning to demand it.

The demand came first from Nova Scotia and Upper and Lower Canada. The rapid growth of these colonies with the new immigration after 1815 produced strains and difficulties which might be called 'growing pains'. By the 1830's many people in these colonies were no longer content with the limited system of representative government that had been established after the American Revolution. They objected to rule by 'Family Compact', and wanted their elected representatives to have more control. Thus a demand for 'responsible government' arose, that is to say, self-government according to the British cabinet system where the government or cabinet is 'responsible' to the elected representatives of the people.

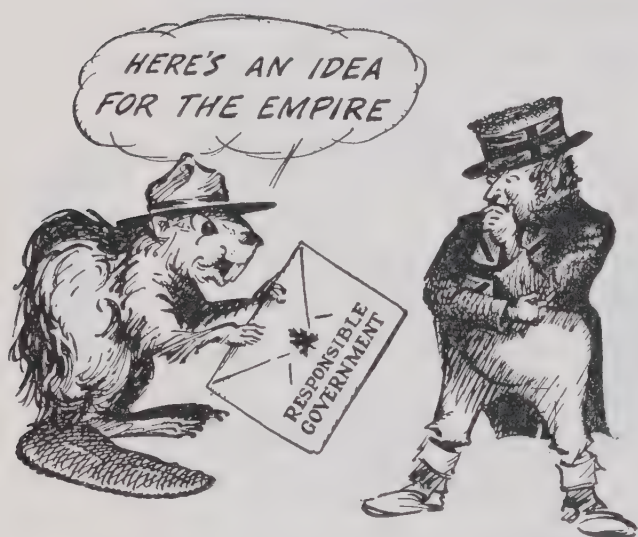
The great mass of people in these British North American colonies had no desire for independence, or thoughts of armed revolt, but the short rebellions of 1837 in Upper and Lower Canada shocked the British government into action. Lord Durham, a brilliant liberal statesman, was sent to investigate. Durham was not one of those who thought colonies were of no value, and he believed that to hold their loyalty they should have more freedom and self-government, and thus be allowed to grow up within the Empire. In his famous Report of 1839, he therefore recommended that 'responsible government' be allowed in the British North American colonies, and in doing this he set forth a principle that was going to have a tremendous effect on the whole development of the Second British Empire.

A MILESTONE IN



THE COMMONWEALTH STORY

Durham believed that colonies like Canada were worthy to enjoy full British liberty. He believed that they might grow into nations, and he looked forward to a great family of free peoples held together by a common loyalty and sense of freedom. We might say indeed that Durham's great Report was the real starting-point for the Commonwealth; for when at length Britain accepted his idea of responsible government and began granting it to her colonies, the march to the free Commonwealth of Nations commenced. And it is worth noting here that a Canadian, Robert Baldwin, had a great deal to do with this all-important idea of



responsible government in Durham's Report. Indeed, Baldwin put a clear plan of the scheme before Lord Durham, and he and two other Canadian statesmen, Louis Lafontaine and Joseph Howe, proceeded to work it out in practice in British North America. Yet the imposing figure of Durham was still needed to give the project meaning for the whole British empire. The great imperial planner and the clear-

sighted colonial leaders all had their parts to play.

After Durham's views were adopted by the British government, it took several years before responsible government went fully into effect. It was established in Nova Scotia in 1848 and in Canada in 1849, thanks largely to the wisdom and vision of Lord Grey, the Colonial Secretary, and Lord Elgin, Canada's Governor-General at the time, as well as to the political skill and patience of Baldwin, Lafontaine and Howe. By this time the introduction of free trade in Britain had cleared the way for the extension of self-government throughout the Empire, and Canada's lead was soon followed elsewhere. In the 1850's responsible government was granted to the several colonies that had grown up in Australia, to New Zealand, and to Newfoundland. Cape Colony in South Africa

did not gain it until the 1870's, but South Africa was more undeveloped and this delay was not due to any change of policy in Britain. In fact, responsible government became the rule in all the leading colonies of British settlement, and this was one of the greatest developments of the whole nineteenth-century period. The Second Empire had taken a long step forward. It was already well on its way to the Commonwealth, the partnership of free nations.

3. New Nations Begin to Emerge

(a) Three Young Dominions Take Form.

Responsible government was a great encouragement to the colonies and it soon showed itself, for example, in movements towards their expansion and union as nations. Again, the British North American colonies, which were the most developed, took the lead. By the 1860's, there was a growing desire for trade among them, and a growing need for a railway to join them. They also wanted greater strength to withstand pressures from the United States and they hoped to build a new nation across the top half of the continent. Only union could accomplish these high aims. Fortunately, the colonies had some outstanding leaders. Britain gave strong approval and aid, and finally in 1867 Confederation joined Nova Scotia and New Brunswick with Ontario and Quebec (Upper and Lower Canada) in one federal union. The way was now clear for the new Dominion to expand from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Within a few years Prince Edward Island entered Confederation in the east, and British Columbia in the west; while, in the middle, Manitoba was carved out of the great western and northern territories purchased by Canada from the Hudson's Bay Company in 1869.



By 1873, the sea-to-sea expansion was completed, though Alberta and Saskatchewan were not made into provinces until they were sufficiently settled in 1905. In 1949, Newfoundland rounded out the great arch of ten provinces.

After Confederation a bond of steel was still needed to join the Dominion from sea to sea, and this came with the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1885. Millions of acres were thus opened to settlement in the West, and within a few years a new wave of immigration was beginning. Between 1896 and 1914 about a million British immigrants came to Canada, somewhat more than the number who had arrived in the years between 1815 and 1860; and in addition there was a large influx from the United States and continental Europe, as there had not been in the earlier period. By 1914, Canada was a vigorous young nation of eight million people, prospering because of its rising industry, its fishing, mining, lumbering, and pulp and paper mills—but above all, because of its golden grain trade with Britain that had grown out of the settlement of the Canadian west.

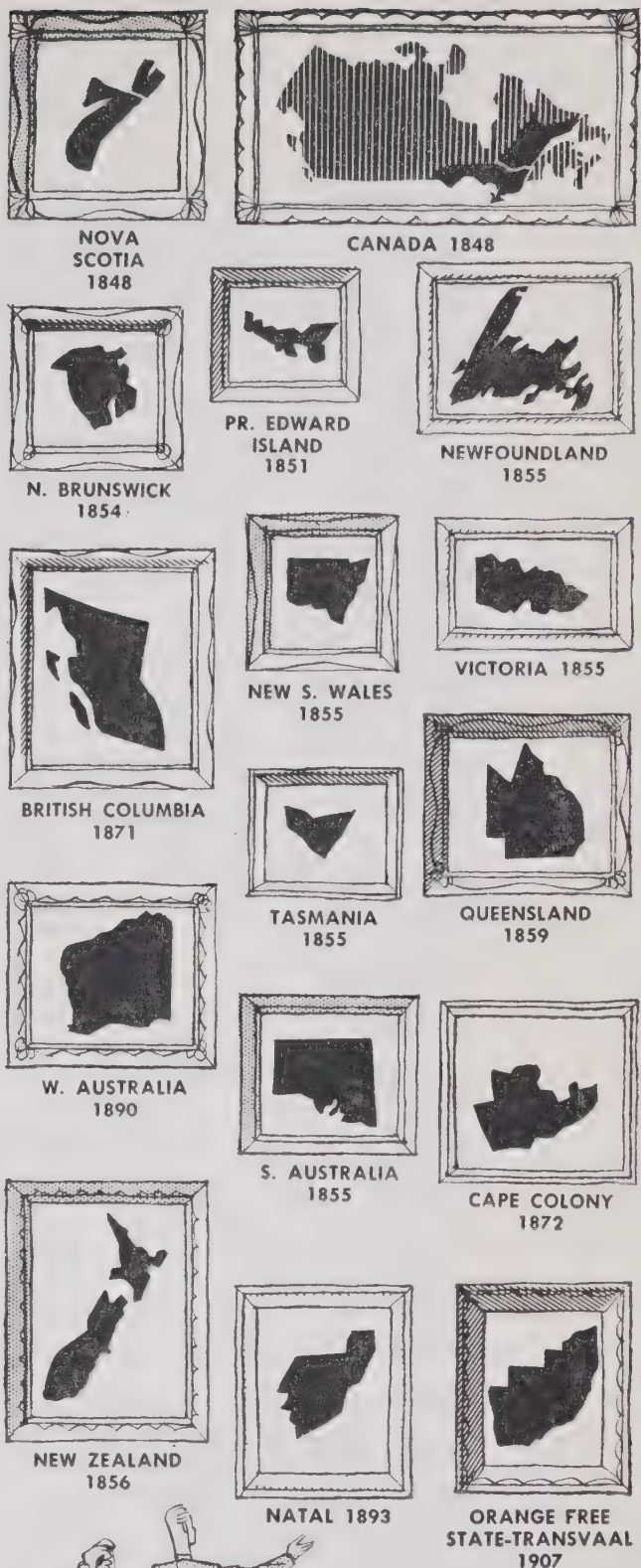
Australia's story, while it is not the same as Canada's, has many interesting points of comparison. In the early nineteenth century the Australian colonies had grown more slowly than the Canadian because the much greater distance had turned the bulk of British settlers to North America rather than to the far-off lands of the Pacific. Still, a steady trickle of colonists had gone to New South Wales. Also Tasmania was founded on the eastern side of the continent, while in 1829 the new colony of Western Australia began the settlement of the other side. After 1830, however, the British government considerably increased the flow of settlers to Australia by using the money from the sale of Australian lands to encourage and assist emigration to the distant continent. This was the scheme of 'systematic colonization', put forward by Edward Gibbon Wakefield, a friend of Lord Durham and his secretary on Durham's mission to Canada.

As a result, settlers of a good type were brought out, and the new colonies of Victoria, South Australia, and later Queensland

The Second British Empire

were established. One other result was the ending of 'transportation', for the rising colonies no longer wanted convict settlements in their land. Yet the really rapid growth of Australia only began with the discovery of gold in 1851. Settlers poured in with the gold rushes, first to New South Wales and Victoria and later to Western Australia. Many of the gold diggings 'panned out', but most of the miners stayed on, and after some hard years were absorbed into farming, and particularly into sheep-raising. By 1880, Australia was thriving again. Sheep 'stations' or ranches spread out into the dry interior and large industrial cities rose on the coast.

The Australian colonies now began to think of union. They had not done so as early as Canada, since the desert heart of the continent had kept them separated from each other, but growing concern over the rise of Japanese and German power in the Pacific led them to think that in union lay strength. Accordingly, plans for a federal union were worked out in the 1890's, and in 1901 the Commonwealth of Australia came into being. The new wave of British settlement that swept into Canada



THE SPREAD OF
RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

at that time was also running to Australia, and so the new Dominion prospered. By 1914 it too was a healthy young nation, almost wholly British in origin, and carrying on most of its trade with the United Kingdom, chiefly by exchanging its high quality wool for British manufactured goods.

New Zealand's settlement only began in 1839, for before that date the missionary movement, very powerful in Britain, had successfully opposed colonization in order to preserve the native Maoris in their simple way of life. Wakefield, Durham and others were pressing for settlement, however. They formed the New Zealand Land Company to carry out the plan of systematic colonization in these ideal surroundings for a white colony. A treaty was made with the Maoris and both the Company and the British government planted settlements on North and South Islands. When the Company wound up its business in 1852 there were six thriving settlements in New Zealand. They were shortly set up as provinces under one federal government and responsible government was established. But as settlement spread completely over the islands, unchecked by any great geographical barriers, there no longer seemed any need for separate provinces. Thus in 1876 a complete union was established in New Zealand.

The rich green fields and mild climate of New Zealand made it a favoured land for farming, but it was only with the development of the refrigerator ship in the 1870's that these far-off islands were able to carry on a great overseas trade. Now New Zealand dairy products and frozen mutton went abroad in great quantity, especially to the British market. By 1914, the Dominion of New Zealand, as it came to be called, though it was the smallest of the self-governing colonies, was in some ways the most progressive, and its people—the most English of any Dominion—were well-off and contented.

(b) **South Africa Reaches Union.** South Africa had entered the story of British expansion when the Dutch settlement at the Cape of Good Hope became the British 'Cape Colony' in 1815. For some years, however, British governors continued to rule over

a population largely composed of Dutch ('Afrikaner') farmers and native tribes. At first these Afrikaners, or Boers, did not greatly mind the change of rulers for they had had little contact with Holland. Indeed, except for the merchants of Cape Town most of the Boers had long been out of touch with the outside world, living as they did in the interior on broad frontier cattle farms. But in 1833 Britain abolished slavery throughout her Empire and this was a hard blow for the Boers who worked their farms with native slaves. They also felt that Britain did not give them sufficient protection from the warlike Kaffir tribes on the frontier. Accordingly, in 1836 began the movement known as the Great Trek, when many Boers left Cape Colony with their ox carts and cattle herds, and struck northeast across the veldt to get behind the Kaffirs and away from British rule. Here, after hard fighting with native tribes, they set up two Boer republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, in which they hoped to live their own lives, free from interference.

Meanwhile, British immigrants were entering South Africa. Many settled in Cape Colony, where there was still a large Afrikaner element. Others went on to subtropical Natal, further eastward up the coast, where sugar and other plantations began to spread out. In general the British settlers stayed near the coast, though some moved into the Orange Free State. Then came the discovery of gold in the Transvaal in the 1890's. Settlers began to rush into that part of the interior, and soon there was trouble between British authorities and the Boer republics, who had never been completely separated from British control.

The gold rush brought thousands of British to the Transvaal, where huge mining operations developed and the big city of Johannesburg grew up almost overnight. But the Boer farmers of



UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1914

the Transvaal resented the British miners and business men in their midst. They refused to grant citizenship to these 'uitlanders' or foreigners. The British government protested, and unhappily the quarrel grew into a war between Britain and the two sister republics, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The hard-fought South African or Boer War lasted from 1899 to 1902 and at the end the Afrikaner republics had to accept defeat. Yet only a few years later Britain sought to heal the wounds by granting them full self-government within the Empire. This generous British offer was successful. Cape Colony and Natal already had self-government and so all four colonies joined together in 1909 to form the Union of South Africa. Here then was the last, and most troubled, of the four self-governing Dominions to come into existence before 1914. South Africa's divisions and problems were deep and difficult, but men of good will could make the Union work. And already the young South African nation had produced one statesman who was to become world renowned, the famous General Jan Smuts who fought against the British in the Boer War but later became one of the founders of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

(c) **India Advances.** By 1914, India, with its teeming millions, had not progressed as far in self-government as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. Still it did have a good deal of representative government and it had taken the first steps on the road which was to bring it, before the middle of the twentieth century, into full membership in the Commonwealth. This growth of India toward nationhood in a free empire ruled by people of another race is one of the most remarkable facts in world history. In 1815 the part of India under British rule was already large and powerful, but it grew much larger in the years up to 1850. The rest of central India and the west and north came under British control, either by conquest, or by treaties of protection made with native states. The greatest effect of this was that India gained a unity and a peace and order that she had not enjoyed since the days of the Mogul Empire—in fact, had never known before.

An unhappy break in this new era of peace came with the Indian Mutiny of 1857-58. But this, despite its sad record of bloodshed, was a leaderless revolt of Indian troops and not a national uprising of the Indian people. Only a few parts of India were affected and it was quickly put down. One important result, however, was the ending in 1858 of the East India Company's rule. It was clear that a company could no longer be responsible for this great domain, and that it should be brought directly under the British government. So ended a great company whose history went back to Tudor times.

The years that followed for India, under a British Viceroy, were marked by the rapid development of railways and other western improvements, by the beginnings of plans for famine control, and the expansion of education—already begun in Company days. At the same time steps were taken to introduce Indians into government posts and to establish elected local bodies to train Indians for self-government. Now indeed India, unified under British rule, was becoming conscious of herself for the first time. In fact, to meet the growing demand for self-government in India, the British Viceroy in 1909 introduced a large degree of representative government, though this was not, and was not intended to be, responsible government. By 1914, therefore, India was still under overall British control; but under that control she had advanced further in peace, prosperity, and in the art of government than she had ever done before.

4. The Dependent Empire

In looking at the progress of the self-governing Dominions and India up to 1914, we must not forget all the colonies and dependencies under British rule in various parts



INDIA, 1914

of the world. They were of many kinds. Some were small, some large, some were peopled by immigrants from the British Isles, others by people of other races and nationalities. Some had representative assemblies, some were ruled by governors only. Indeed, the Empire was a kind of colonial laboratory in which almost every possible example was represented, and although only a few can be mentioned here we should find if we looked them up that each had its own interesting story.

(a) **Possessions in America and Asia.** In the Americas, the chief British colonial dependencies were still the sugar islands of the West Indies, but now there were also British Honduras on the mainland of Central America and British Guiana on the coast of South America, while off the southern tip of this continent lay Britain's lonely Falkland Isles. The West Indies, however, lost much of their old importance in the British Empire during the nineteenth century. Their sugar production was decreasing, as long years of the growing of sugar cane exhausted the soil. New areas elsewhere in the world were now producing much sugar, and also the sugar beet had become a powerful rival of the sugar cane. Then too the West Indies planters felt themselves hard-hit by the loss of cheap slave labour, when Britain abolished slavery in her empire in 1833. The islands, sinking into gloom and poverty, even gave up their old representative assemblies for simpler, cheaper rule by governor alone. But gradually they began to revive, especially with the introduction of the banana crop, carried to distant markets by the new refrigerator ships. The growth of the tourist trade in these lovely winter-free islands also helped. As they revived they gained representative government back again—until today, the British West Indies are thinking of uniting to form a self-governing Dominion of their own.

It was not in the Americas, but in the eastern world that the British colonial empire was growing most rapidly during the nineteenth century. In Asia, of course, there were India and Ceylon, and Burma, next-door to India, was gradually added to Britain's Indian empire in the course of the century. East of Burma, the

genius of Sir Stamford Raffles developed Singapore as a busy port after 1819. It became one of the world's greatest seaports, 'the cross roads of the Orient', and led to the expansion of British power in Malaya. Malaya in time became an exceedingly valuable possession, rich in rubber and tin.

Farther east still, Hong Kong emerged as the chief base for Britain's trade with China after 1842, and this China trade soared in value during the nineteenth century. At Hong Kong, in fact, Britain actually created a great and wealthy trading city out of a desolate and uninhabited island. Still farther eastwards, in the island-dotted Pacific, the activities of both British missionaries and traders led to a number of island groups coming under the British flag—the Solomons, the Gilberts, and many others. Some island peoples, such as those of Fiji in 1874, sought annexation to Britain of their own free will, in order to gain protection from lawless traders and seizure by some other power.

(b) **Imperialism in Africa.** Nevertheless, despite all this activity in the Far East, Africa was the biggest field for the expansion of the dependent empire in the nineteenth century. Here heroic British missionaries played a leading part. In the great work of teaching Christianity they blazed trails across the dark continent. Men like the gentle and courageous David Livingstone opened its unknown interior. Working north out of South Africa, he explored the vast country that would later become British Rhodesia, crossed the continent from side to side, and at his death in 1873 had reached the upper waters of the Congo, far in central Africa. Beyond this work of exploring new territories, missionaries at times pressed the British government to annex the lands of native tribes when they thought it was necessary to bring them help and protection. But it would be quite wrong to think that they simply acted as agents for imperial expansion. In other cases, New Zealand's, for example, missionaries had strongly opposed annexation: it all depended on particular circumstances. At any rate, mission work greatly increased Britain's contacts with many parts of Africa. Particularly when interest in colonies was at its

lowest ebb in Britain, between 1850 and 1870, the missionary movement kept Britain's eyes on strange and little-known regions of the world.

After 1870, British interest in colonies rapidly revived. Other countries were developing their manufactures, and putting up barriers to Britain's trade. And so the markets and raw materials of her own colonies began to look far more valuable to Britain again. Besides, other nations were now eagerly seeking colonies. This strong desire to build up empires is known as imperialism. Britain, the leading countries of Europe, and the United States all felt the influence of imperialism in the later nineteenth century.

Imperialism had both its good and bad sides. It might mean new civilization and knowledge for backward peoples in Africa and Asia, or just a selfish, foreign rule indifferent to their problems. It might show a real sense of responsibility for helping these people forward, or just a desire to use them to create riches for the ruling European interests. Often it meant both: we would be wrong either to praise or condemn imperialism too quickly. In British hands, moreover, imperialism in backward regions often did more good than harm. The gradual growth of freedom in many British possessions in Africa and Asia down to the present illustrates that fact.

The result of the spirit of imperialism was a race to carve up Africa, as the chief nations of Europe strove to stake out new colonies while there were still lands to be had. And Britain, with her already large experience of empire, did very well in the race. In West Africa, she built up the wide territories of Nigeria and the Gold Coast, and in East Africa, Uganda and Kenya were added. Wealthy trading companies like the British East Africa Company, the Royal Niger Company in West Africa, and the British South Africa Company in Rhodesia, pushed through railways, opened mines, and developed the agriculture of these vast new areas.

Meanwhile in Egypt Britain had bought control of the Suez Canal, the great short-cut to the East. This led to the control of Egypt, after 1882, when the Egyptian government went bank-

This great new African empire was developed by the energy, skill and vision of men like Joseph Chamberlain, Britain's Colonial Secretary during the 1890's, and Cecil Rhodes, a leading South African statesman, diamond millionaire, and empire builder of the same day. The worst side of both Chamberlain's and Rhodes' activities probably appeared in their partial responsibility for the South African War. Chamberlain's best side perhaps appeared



in his splendid efforts to develop the tropical African colonies, for example, through encouraging research in tropical medicine. The best work of Rhodes is surely found in the huge African territory named after him: Rhodesia itself is his fitting monument.

5. The Dominions and the Empire Face New Problems

Towards the close of the nineteenth century, Britain, now very interested in her vast empire, was seeking to organize it more tightly. Joseph Chamberlain, who sincerely believed in the value of a free empire, played a leading part in these efforts. He had no thought of decreasing the self-government enjoyed by the Dominions, but he hoped to bring them of their own free will to form some closer union with Britain for common defence. He feared the rise of dangerous rivals like Germany, and indeed the First World War was to break out a few years later in 1914. Chamberlain's ideas of closer union were not, however, acceptable even to the majority in Britain. In the Dominions feelings of nationalism had developed too far for them to accept tighter imperial bonds. They had no desire to break with the Empire, but they did not want their free control of their own affairs to be in any way reduced.

By now the Dominions had a wide range of freedom, indeed. Not only could they manage their own internal or home affairs, they could fix their own trade policies (Canada leading the way in 1859), and maintain their own land forces (Canada again taking the lead in 1871). They still, however, did not deal directly with outside countries, but only through Britain, and so could not yet be called full-grown nations. Yet they were looking in this direction.

There is a special point to be noted here, however. Growing up for the Dominions was not just a matter of demanding new rights. They had to learn also to take on new responsibilities—to show that they really were ready and able to stand on their

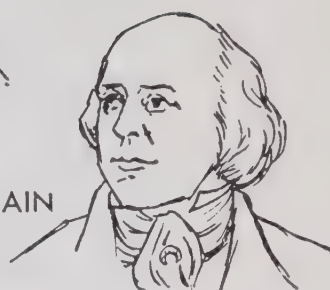
The Second British Empire

own feet. And it must be admitted that sometimes the young Dominions seemed more eager to gain 'grown-up's' rights than to take on 'grown-up's' tasks. Britain, for example, expected them to take over more work of defence if they wanted to be free to run their affairs in the world: which was quite a reasonable view. We must see that the march of Canada and her sister Dominions to full national freedom was not just a one-sided affair of demanding things from Britain. It was also a matter of showing Britain that they were ready for new duties, and this the Dominions soon did, as we shall see later, in the terrible World War of 1914-18. Canada and the others could truly be said to have earned their place in the world as nations.

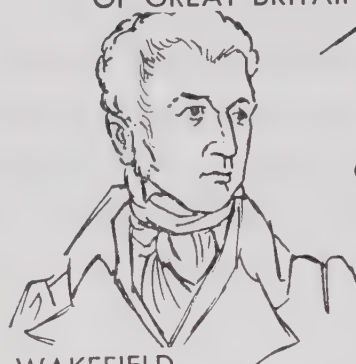
Before the grim test came in 1914, the Dominions were talking of widening their rights in the empire and the name of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, one of Canada's greatest Prime Ministers, is particularly linked to this discussion. Laurier did not seek to break with Britain, but he was also a true Canadian nationalist. He sent troops to aid Britain in the Boer War, but worked as well to increase Canada's control over her dealings with the



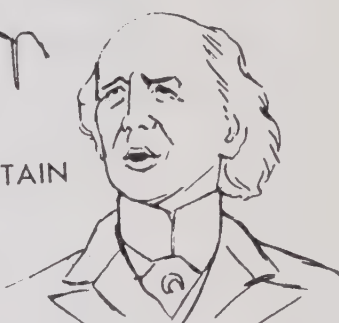
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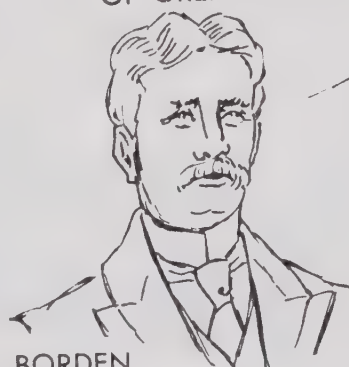
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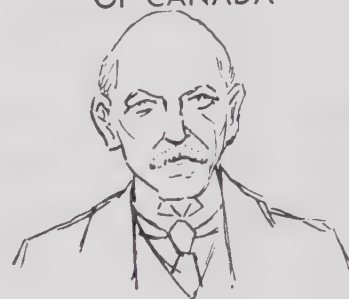
LAURIER
OF CANADA



BORDEN
OF CANADA



MASSEY
OF NEW ZEALAND



HUGHES
OF AUSTRALIA



SMUTS
OF SOUTH AFRICA



AND NEHRU OF INDIA

outside world. Laurier looked forward, in fact, to the day when the British Empire would be a free Commonwealth of equal nations. That day would come not very long after his time.

Nevertheless in the years when Laurier and others were standing against any attempt to tighten imperial ties, there were many signs that feelings of friendship and co-operation in the Empire were strong. Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, for example, in 1897 brought forth a great chorus of loyalty. In 1887 there began also the practice of holding Imperial Conferences for discussion of common problems, and these conferences emphasized the ideas of freedom and frank discussion in the Empire which the self-



governing colonies had in mind. Moreover, the Imperial Conferences established the name 'Dominion' as the official title for a self-governing colony in order to mark its special position. They agreed that Dominions could begin to build their own navies, as Canada and Australia did after 1909, and also agreed that they should be informed of developments in Britain's dealings with outside nations.

This growth of freedom did not mean the breakup of the Empire, as many said it would, and this was shown in 1914 when the Empire met the danger of World War with a united front. In fact, in 1914 the Empire was at a peak of strength, and ready

for its hard trial. Britain's industry and British sea power still led the world, although there were close challengers. Four young nations and an Indian Empire stood by her side, and loyal colonies were dotted around the world, from Africa to the Pacific, and from the West Indies to the Falkland Isles below South America. So far then, had Britain's overseas expansion brought her from the first Tudor adventuring on the high seas. Close to a fifth of the earth's land surface and one quarter of the peoples of the globe had been brought together in an Empire whose ideal was freedom. This was a long way, indeed, from the voyage of John Cabot.

Learn by Doing

1. Make a mural showing Cook exploring Australia and settlers landing at Botany Bay. (1, a)
2. Each pupil selects one part of the Second British Empire, points it out on a wall map and states how it was obtained by Britain. (1, a and b)
3. Two committees discuss the advantages and evils of the industrial changes in Britain. (2, a)
4. A panel discusses the way Canada obtained self-government. (2, b)
5. Have an imaginary radio interview with Lord Durham. (2, b)
6. Organize five committees to present the story of how Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and India became nations. Each committee presents one story and uses maps and other illustrative material. (3, a, b and c)
7. Prepare a paper movie roll showing a scene in each of the small colonies of the Empire. As each scene is shown, a brief story is told of each part.

Facts to Know

1. "The first Empire produced revolution and angry discord; the second, evolution and friendly partnership". Discuss the reasons for this change of attitude.
2. Why did the United States attack Canada in 1812? (1, b)
3. Why did people flock to the British colonies in the nineteenth century? (2, a)
4. Why did the Canadian provinces join into one nation? (3, a)
5. Why was the Union of the South African provinces in 1909 so remarkable? (3, b)
6. In what ways did the British government help to improve conditions in India? (3, c)
7. Why were Hong Kong and Singapore important to Britain? (4, a)

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UNIT TEN

THE FIRST WORLD WAR AND THE MOULDING OF THE COMMONWEALTH, 1914 – 1931

1. *The Background of the First World War*
2. *The First World War*
3. *The Empire's Contribution to Victory*
4. *The Effects of the War on Britain*
5. *How the Commonwealth Began*
6. *What is the Commonwealth?*

On June 28, 1914, in the little Serbian town of Sarajevo, Archduke Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, was shot to death in his carriage as he was driving through the streets. Most Canadians had never heard of Sarajevo or of the Archduke; the Balkans were far away, and although they were a trouble spot in Europe they seemed to have little to do with Canada except for the immigrants who had recently come from such countries as Serbia, Bulgaria, Romania, and Greece. Few Canadians, when they read about the assassination in their newspapers, could have thought it had very much to do with them. Yet within six weeks all the great powers in Europe were at war and the First World War had begun. Canada with the rest of the British Em-

pire found herself drawn into a conflict which was to last over four years, and was to leave an effect on every country in the world. Before it was over the United States, which intended at the beginning to remain neutral, also found herself drawn in.

On Britain and the British Empire this war was to have a very great effect. For a hundred years, since the defeat of Napoleon, Britain had been the greatest sea power in the world, with a navy at least twice the size of any other. She had used it to keep the oceans at peace and open to the commerce of all nations. This century, 1815-1914, has been called the Pax Britannica. By 1918, at the end of the war this situation was greatly altered. Although Britain was on the winning side, the sacrifices which she had made had reduced her strength, while other nations especially the United States and Japan had greatly increased their navies and their industries. Thus Britain's world position was changed.



ROPE
TREATY OF VERSAILLES
GERMAN 1914
RUSSIAN 1914

The effect on the Empire was equally great. At the beginning of the war, although Canada and the other Dominions like Australia were completely self-governing in their home affairs, they did not control their foreign affairs, and they were not accepted by other countries as full-grown nations. But during the war this rapidly changed. By the end of the war it was plain that Canada and the other Dominions were no longer colonies; and that they must be treated as nations. Even before the war was over the first steps were taken in this direction, and after the war this development towards full nationhood went on rapidly. By 1931 it was clear that a great change had taken place and that a British Commonwealth of free nations had come into existence.

There were, of course, still many colonies. Britain had fifty or more scattered around the world, though the Commonwealth nations were no longer counted among them. Britain was, however, not the only Commonwealth country with colonies. Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, each had dependencies, and the Commonwealth thus was a collection not merely of nations but of empires—surely something new in the world.

We must not think that the First World War was entirely responsible for this moulding of the Commonwealth out of the Empire. Before 1914 Canada and the other Dominions had already grown rapidly towards full nationhood, but the First World War hastened this growth and made clear to the world what was taking place. Let us look, then, at the causes of this world-wide conflict which left such far-reaching effects on the whole English-speaking world.

1. The Background of the First World War

Why did a shot in Sarajevo plunge the world into war? One answer is very simple. In a field of explosives one small explosion can set off a train of others which can spread like a flash until the whole field blows up. So it was

with the assassination of the Archduke. Austria-Hungary immediately made severe demands on Serbia, which Germany supported. It seemed as if Germany and Austria-Hungary wanted to make this crisis an excuse for extending their power into the Balkans. Russia feared such a move and supported Serbia. Quickly the other great powers in Europe came into the argument. Within six weeks the discussions broke down, the first shots were fired and the war had begun. Two things were specially responsible for this train of events: one was that the Balkans were a trouble spot full of bitterness and rivalries, the other was that the great powers in Europe were already divided into two armed camps so that a crisis in any one place would quickly draw in everyone.

Trouble in the Balkans, the first of these two causes, was due to geography and to the different groups and nationalities living there. The map will help to make this clear. The whole region is cut up by mountains which in many places come right down to the sea. Thus it is divided into small areas with differences and rivalries, some of them centuries old. Into this region, also for centuries, came a great mixture of peoples from east, west, north, and south, for the Balkans have been a kind of crossroads. You can see this if you draw one line from Germany and Austria south through the Strait of Bosphorus and Turkey, and another line east from the Mediterranean through the Black Sea toward Russia. In the Balkans many groups, nationalities, languages, and religions have mingled but without uniting—Germans, Russians, Italians, Turks, Greeks, Eastern Christians, Western Christians, Moslems, and so forth.

In 1914 the Balkans were divided into small nations, Serbia, Romania, Bulgaria, Greece, Albania, Montenegro, each determined to keep its independence, but most of them also



THE CROSSROADS OF EUROPE

divided within themselves by quarrels. So the Balkan governments were often weak, and it was little wonder that the nearby great powers were always watching their chance to 'fish in these troubled waters'. In 1914 Germany and Russia especially were watching the Balkans. For some years Germany had been pushing her influence southward through Turkey, and she wished among other things to build a Berlin-Bagdad railway which would give her a road to the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. Russia, always interested in the route from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean, was fearful of such plans. There were many Slav people in the Balkans, such as the Serbs, and Russia was determined that they should not fall under German control. With all these rivalries we can understand why the Balkans had been called the tinder-box of Europe. The assassination in Serbia of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne was sure, therefore, to bring a crisis. This need not have brought on a war had everyone been determined to find a peaceful solution, but the fact that Europe was divided into two armed camps made such a solution very difficult. This brings us to the second cause.

The two armed camps into which the great powers were divided consisted of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy, called the Triple Alliance, on one side, and France and Russia on the other. This division came about in the late years of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth. For a long time Britain did not wish to join with either side. Protected by the greatest fleet in the world, she followed a policy of 'splendid isolation'. At the end of the nineteenth century she had also been more friendly to Germany than France, but this changed soon after the twentieth century began. Germany under Kaiser Wilhelm II decided that she would have not only the greatest army in the world but a navy equal to Britain's as well. A naval-building race began which went on year after year.

Germany might have become the greatest country in Europe had she been content with peaceful advances, because her in-

dustries and trade were developing in a remarkable way. She was determined, however, to have military conquests as well. The German people were trained to consider themselves as a nation in arms. They were told that war was the finest activity of any nation, and German leaders boasted at times that Germany would conquer the world. Faced by these threats Britain found that she had to abandon her policy of 'splendid isolation'. Germany was pressing hard to expand her holdings in Africa and the Pacific, and in Europe her huge armaments seemed a threat to peace. In 1902 Britain and Japan made a treaty to defend each other's interests in the Pacific, and soon after Britain settled her differences with France and Russia. The arrangements between Britain, France, and Russia were called the 'Triple Entente', or friendly agreement.



All the great powers in Europe were thus divided between the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente.

So, when Austria-Hungary attacked Serbia, the great powers were quickly drawn in. Russia moved to help Serbia. Germany entered the war because she was bound to assist Austria-Hungary. France had agreed to aid Russia; and Germany, therefore, declared war on France. Italy decided at first to remain neutral. As for Britain, she had not bound herself to help France and Russia in every circumstance, but when Germany attacked France she did it in such a way that Britain had no choice. Germany not only attacked France, but she also invaded Belgium in order to strike at France's unfortified border. Germany, Britain, and France had signed a treaty to respect Belgium's neutrality, but Germany tore up this treaty saying it was only a 'scrap of paper'. No act of Germany aroused the British people as did this heartless attack on Belgium, and when Britain declared war on Germany the British people were solidly behind their government.

Britain's declaration of war in 1914 meant that the whole Empire was also at war. This was not the case at the beginning of the Second World War. In 1939 each Commonwealth country like Canada had the right to make up its own mind. But in 1914 the Commonwealth had not yet developed, so that Britain's declaration included the whole Empire. Britain could not, however, decide how much Canada or the other Dominions would contribute. That was their own business, and they might do as little or much as they pleased. It soon became clear that they were going to do a great deal. They knew that they could not afford to have Germany win. They did not want to be ruled by German military power. A German victory would mean the loss of freedom. So the Empire from its smallest colonies to its largest Dominions believed it was fighting in its own defence. German writers had said that the Empire was falling apart, and that a war would break it up. Instead Germany found it solidly united.

2. The First World War

Britain's part in the war was expected to be chiefly at sea. She had a very small army, while the French and Russian armies were very large. Before many months had passed, it became clear that Britain would have to make a very large effort on land also. Nevertheless, the war at sea remained tremendously important throughout the whole struggle. If it had been lost, Germany would certainly have won.

The war at sea was so important because of the enormous amounts of men and materials that had to be transported across the oceans. Sea power was, of course, no new thing. It had been Britain's chief weapon ever since the sixteenth century. It had beaten the Armada and Napoleon. But by 1914, two new things had developed which changed war at sea very much.

The first was the fact that Britain needed raw material and food far more than in any previous war. This was the first war in which manufactured goods and industries had played so large a part: guns and munitions in enormous quantities, steel ships, trucks, aeroplanes, and a thousand other manufactured things were needed and hungry factories had to be fed with iron, coal, cotton, oil, rubber, tin, and scores of other raw materials, many of them from across the oceans. Food was equally important. Because of her industrial revolution of the nineteenth century and her rapid increase in population Britain could no longer feed herself. In spite of rationing and higher production during the war, food still had to be imported in large quantities. Food could spell victory or defeat. Germany also needed food and raw materials from overseas, though not so much as Britain. Before the war was over, however, Germany was being strangled by the blockade which cut off her supplies of raw materials like rubber.

The second change which had affected sea warfare by 1914 were the new weapons, such as the great steel battleships with their 16-inch guns which could hit a target twenty miles away. The really new thing, however, was the submarine. Submarines could



be built far more cheaply and quickly, and in greater numbers than battleships, and they were just as deadly against merchant ships. Submarines and torpedoes made a revolution in sea warfare, and they suited Germany's needs exactly. With them she thought she could win the battle for sea power, and she came dangerously close to doing so. Slow-moving freighters were fine targets, and scientific methods for detecting submarines under water had not yet been invented. Early in the war submarines showed what they could do. In 1915 the large passenger liner *Lusitania* was sunk without warning with a loss of over 1,150 people, of whom over 100 were American citizens. This almost brought the United States into the war, and for a time Germany decreased her submarine campaign.

By 1917, however, Germany was becoming desperate and she decided to gamble everything on the attempt to starve Britain by a submarine blockade. All ships, whether neutral or not, which were entering or leaving British ports were to be sunk. This desperate move almost gained success. For a time, one out of four ships entering or leaving British ports was sunk, and Britain was brought almost to the point of starvation. Gradually, however, the submarine menace was beaten. Convoys were improved, and better methods of fighting submarines were worked out, such as disguising specially armed ships to look like freighters. So Germany lost the sea war, and at the same time she lost far more because her unrestricted submarine campaign was one of the chief reasons for the United States entering the war in 1917. The submarine had made clear, however, that the world's oceans could never again be controlled by one nation as they had been by Britain in the nineteenth century.

Only one great naval battle, the battle of Jutland, took place during the war. In 1916 the main German battle fleet steamed out of port, where the British fleet had kept it bottled up, and British squadrons tried to trap and destroy it. But fog often made it difficult for the fleets to see each other. Some British vessels suffered heavy damage, while the chief German ships escaped back to harbour. However, the German fleet never put to sea again, except to surrender at Scapa Flow at the end of the war.

Let us turn to the war on land. It started in a series of rapid movements. German forces raced through Belgium, hoping to seize the channel ports so that Britain could not land troops and supplies, and also hoping to strike towards Paris. The attack rolled on as if it could never be stopped, but within a few miles of Paris the German drive was thrown back. Both sides then dug in and made long lines of opposing trenches extending for six hundred miles from the Alps to the English Channel. Millions of men were poured into the trench lines and the war turned into a kind of great siege. Germany had gained one great advantage by seizing almost all of Belgium and northeastern France with their wealth of iron, coal, and factories, but she had failed to gain the quick victory she hoped for.

The battle lines on the Western front then changed little until the great German drive of 1917. With their barbed-wire entanglements and guns of all sizes, the network of trenches was too strong to be broken. Gains were measured in yards, and at tremendous cost in men and materials as both sides became locked in bitter hand-to-hand fighting. New weapons were thrown into the fray. Guns and ammunition were made more deadly and destructive. Early in 1915 the Germans let loose clouds of poison gas at Ypres, the first time this horrible weapon had been used. It happened that the Canadian troops were just then at Ypres, and they won undying fame by holding the line and preventing a German break-through to the Channel ports. Gas masks, of course, had not been invented. Later in the war, the first tanks were used

by the British, but they never became so important as they did in the Second World War. Aeroplanes also were used in war for the first time during the First World War and played a very big part. At first they served as eyes for the armies and fleets, but soon they became deadly weapons of war carrying guns and bombs. As the war went on, machines of many kinds were relied on more and more, both for attack and defence, and enormous quantities of ammunition were used. This was the first war in which the full manufacturing power of the industrial revolution came into play.

Along the eastern front there was much more movement. Russia's enormous army faced the German and Austrian armies and great battles were fought with very heavy losses on both sides. Before the end of 1914, Turkey came in on Germany's side and a few months later Italy came in on the side of the Allies, in spite of the fact that she had been a member of the Triple Alliance. Her old hatred of Austria was stronger than their treaty of friendship. Little Greece also bravely supported the Allies which was most important for them in the Eastern Mediterranean, while Bulgaria joined Germany and Austria, and helped them to overrun Serbia.

Two famous campaigns took place in the eastern Mediterranean



THE CANADIANS GASSED AT YPRES

region, the first of which was a defeat for the Allies and the second a success. The first was an attempt in 1915 to force a way through the Dardanelles, capture Constantinople, and so be able to carry help to Russia. British warships were sent to bombard the coast, and at Gallipoli landings were made by Allied forces, largely made up of troops from the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (called Anzacs from their initials). But, after eight months of hard fighting, the attempt to break through had to be given up. This was very unfortunate, because it seems that better planning and larger forces might have given the Allies a surprise victory of great importance.

The other campaign, two years later, was further south where Turkish forces were threatening the Suez Canal. Here the Arabs, who had been under Turkish rule, were organized by a famous British scholar, T. E. Lawrence, who had lived among them and won their friendship. Their help was of tremendous value to General Allenby whose army drove the Turks back from the Egyptian frontier and captured Jerusalem.

In 1917, in addition to the fighting, there were two events which changed the course of the war and were, indeed, important in world history: one was the collapse of Russia and the Communist revolution in that country; the other was the entrance of the United States into the war on the Allied side. The collapse of Russia came because of the weakness and inefficiency of Russia's government under the Czar. Defeat and discontent led to revolution, and the Communists under Lenin and Trotsky seized control. Russia was in no condition to continue the war, and a treaty was made with Germany in which Russia gave up valuable territory. In return, however, the new Communist government got peace which gave it a chance to organize Communist control over the country.

Russia was thus out of the war, but the entrance of the United States into the struggle against Germany offset this loss. The United States had a vast manufacturing power, and great manpower to throw into the conflict. Germany had only herself to



LENIN

blame for the entrance of the United States, since her unrestricted submarine warfare, which sank American ships and killed American citizens, was the chief cause. In addition, however, most Americans felt that the United States could not afford to see Germany win. They believed that

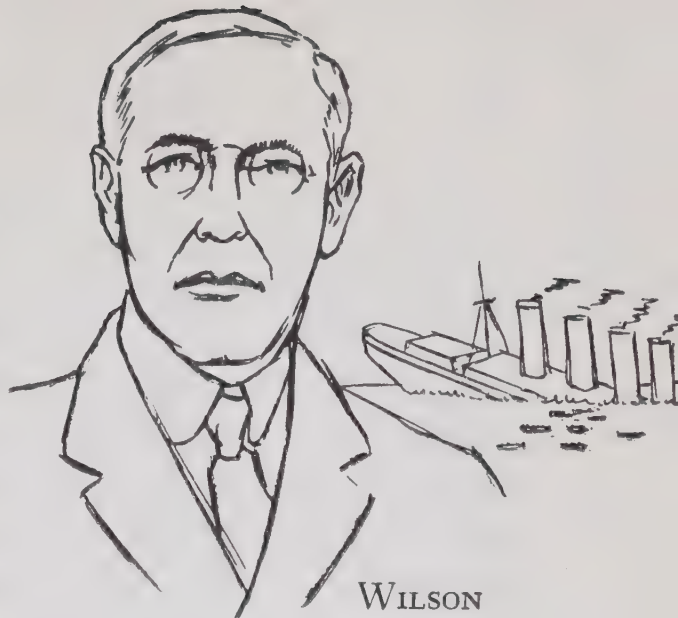
their freedom would be endangered by a German victory, and by Germany's ideas of world conquest.

The entrance of the United States for the first time into a European war was a great turning point in American policy. For over a century Americans had believed that they should take no part in wars outside the American hemisphere. 1917, therefore, marks a very great change in the relation of the United States to world affairs. It marks also the growth of a better understanding between the United States and Britain.

Germany now realized that she was beaten, unless she gained a quick victory before the United States could place strong forces in Europe. In the spring of 1918, therefore, she made a supreme effort to break the Allied lines, but her drive was stopped within forty miles of Paris. By this time there were strong American forces in France, and in August a great counter-offensive was begun with an attack near Amiens, in which Canadians and Australians took a leading part. The German General Ludendorff called this August 8th Germany's 'black day', because he realized then that she had lost the war. The Allies now gave the Germans no rest, and, in attack after attack, hurled them back. Germany's allies collapsed in rapid succession, and in November the German leaders asked for an armistice. At 11 a.m. on November 11th, the fighting ceased.

For the first time in over four years the guns were silent, and the awful struggle was ended, leaving behind, however, a mass of difficult and unsolved problems. The cost of the war in materials

and supplies had been tremendous, and it was impossible to estimate the cost in human lives and suffering. Moreover, the war had changed conditions in all countries which had taken part in it, and in Europe particularly disorder and revolution were spreading. Plans had to be made, and made quickly, to save countries from ruin.



WILSON

The Peace Conference was held in Paris where a large body of diplomats and experts gathered in January, 1919. The Conference lasted six months, and in that time it not only had to agree on terms for Germany, but had to redraw the map of Europe, and try to decide on the best way of maintaining world peace. It was almost a world conference. Only the defeated powers and a few neutral countries were not represented. The three outstanding leaders were President Wilson of the United States, Prime Minister Clemenceau of France, and Prime Minister Lloyd George of Britain.

To prevent Germany from starting another war, Germany and her allies were disarmed. Germany's overseas colonies were also taken away, and she was required to pay a huge sum of money for damages during the war. This was one of the unwise decisions of the Conference, as the amount was set too high and was never collected, while at the same time Germany was given a grievance which she used later. In Central Europe, Austria-Hungary was broken up, and new states were created to allow national groups to have self-government. Of these the two chief were Poland, and Czechoslovakia.

But the most important decision of the Peace Conference was to set up the League of Nations. The hope was that it would be an organization of nations large and small to keep peace and look after the common problems of all countries. Supporters of the

League believed that peace could be kept if disputes among nations were settled by discussions in which all states took part. The League when first started did not include the defeated powers; they would be included after they had carried out the terms imposed on them. Neither did it at first include Russia. Unfortunately it was further weakened by the United States refusing to join, and the United States never did become a member in spite of the fact that President Wilson was more responsible than anyone else for creating the League. Britain and the Dominions took an active part in the League from the first, believing that it held the promise of a new era when co-operation among nations would replace war. No one, however, was willing to trust the League fully as a means of settling the world's troubles, and the fact that some important nations were not members was a handicap from the beginning.

3. The Empire's Contribution to Victory

Britain soon found after the war began that this struggle demanded a greater effort than she had ever made before in her long history, and that she had to devote all her resources to it. Her navy patrolled the seas, keeping the German fleet in port, hunting submarines, and guarding great convoys of merchant ships carrying food and supplies. She also aided her allies in Europe by sending them arms, ammunition, food, and other supplies, and by making great loans of money. When her allies could no longer obtain supplies or loans from the United States, Britain pledged her security to assist these countries and borrowed from the United States for them. Thus Britain undermined her financial power to win the war.

Britain had to turn her factories from peace-time production to the making of war supplies, in a way she had not expected. Thousands of men and women were drawn into war plants from

The First World War

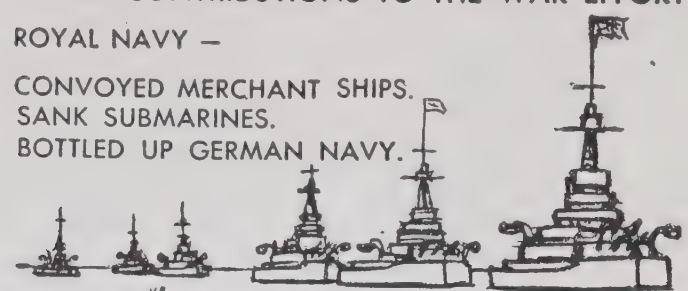
other work, and the export trade, on which Britain depended, had to be abandoned for the time. More and more the whole strength of the nation had to be devoted to winning the war, and British business men had to give up their freedom of action and accept government controls as part of this war effort.

When the submarine menace became serious, food became scarce, and rationing had to be brought in, with long lines of weary people waiting outside shops to buy supplies. Fortunately bread was not rationed, and people could buy as much as they wished. To the submarine menace were added new threats from the air. German airships bombed London and other towns, and caused a great deal of excitement and damage, though nothing like the losses from bombing in the Second World War. The Germans hoped the air raids would slow down production, and destroy the British will to fight but in this they were completely disappointed. The war did, however, affect the life of everyone. It was a total war. From school children to old people, each person had something to do, and for

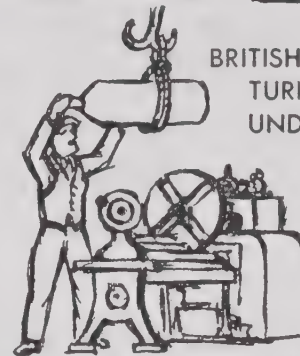
EMPIRE CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE WAR EFFORT

ROYAL NAVY —

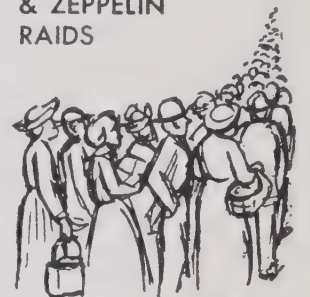
CONVOYED MERCHANT SHIPS.
SANK SUBMARINES.
BOTTLED UP GERMAN NAVY.



BRITISH INDUSTRY —
TURNED TO MUNITION MAKING
UNDER GOV'T CONTROL



CIVILIANS —
FACED RATIONING
& ZEPPELIN
RAIDS



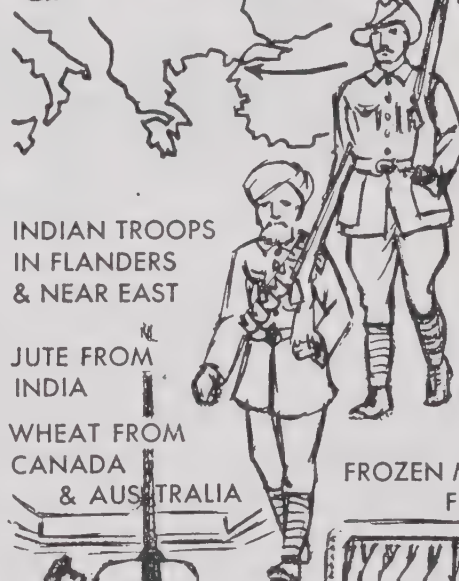
BY
WAR'S END
ONE
THIRD
OF
ROYAL
FLYING
CORPS
MADE UP
OF
CANADIANS



CANADIAN
ARMY IN
FLANDERS



ANZACS AT
GALLIPOLI



INDIAN TROOPS
IN FLANDERS
& NEAR EAST

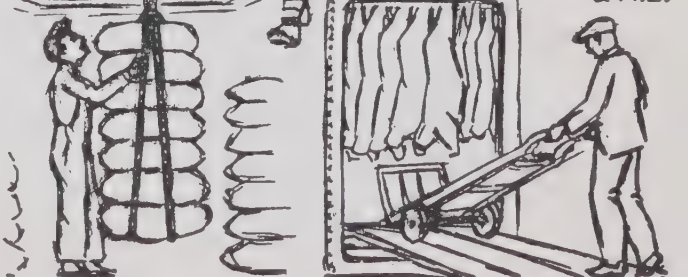
JUTE FROM
INDIA

WHEAT FROM
CANADA
& AUSTRALIA

MUNITIONS
FROM
CANADA



FROZEN MEAT
FROM AUSTRALIA
& N.Z.



the first time in Britain's history, the difference between civilians and soldiers seemed largely wiped out. It was the first war in which women had been enlisted in the armed services, in such organizations as the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps.

Some idea of the effort made in the war is given by the following figures of men contributed to the armed forces:

British Isles	5,704,416
Canada	640,886
Australia	416,809
New Zealand	220,099
South Africa	136,070
India	1,401,350
Colonies	134,837

8,654,467

Of this total, one million were killed and two million wounded.



As for the Empire, the part taken by it was far greater than was expected, and was a thrilling reply to those who had said that it would collapse in face of a crisis. Canadians won honour for themselves in the air and on the Western front. At the end of the war no less than one-third of all pilots in action in Britain's Royal Air Force were Canadians. During the war Canada also organized her own Flying Corps and her own Atlantic Coastal Patrol. Canada's great contribution was, however, on the Western

front where her Army Corps came to be known as among the best shock troops of the Allied Army. From other parts of the Empire the contributions to the fighting fronts were similar. Australians and New Zealanders, the Anzacs, fought on the Western front and in the Middle East. Their hard-fought campaign at Gallipoli, even though it failed, gave them a reputation as picked troops. Australia's young navy helped in the Pacific. Indian troops were prominent in the defence of the Suez Canal and of the oil fields around the Persian Gulf. Some also saw action in France. South Africans took part in the campaigns against the German African colonies, and many enlisted in the British Armed Services.

From the Empire there came enormous quantities of raw materials to supply British factories and great mountains of food for the British and allied peoples in Europe. The Canadian prairie was called the bread basket of the Allies, because it produced during the war hundreds of millions of bushels of wheat from lands which thirty years earlier had been unbroken prairie. Manufacturing also developed in various parts of the Empire as a result of the war. Canadian factories, for example, sent overseas more than sixty-six million shells, and these industrial contributions had an important share in the final victory.

4. The Effects of the War on Britain

At first sight Britain seemed to have gained much from the war. Like the earlier Spanish and French empires, the German empire had been defeated. Britain had gained more colonies and possessions—lands in Africa and islands in the Pacific. The dreaded rival had been stripped of power, and there was no nation in Europe stronger than Britain to threaten the peace. With the League of Nations to prevent future wars, Britain's leaders and people hoped to regain their former prosperity. They

were soon to find, however, that Britain's position was not as favourable as it appeared to be. For a short time after the war British trade rose. Goods were needed to repair the damages of war and new businesses were starting. In 1920 British exports were valued at £1,577,000,000. But in the following year they dropped to £810,000,000, and by the middle of 1921 two million workers were idle. So Britain faced two problems which were to cause great distress: loss of export trade, and unemployment.

The causes of these twin evils were not difficult to find. One was the loss of markets which were hard to recover. During the war the United States had supplied the needs of South America, and Japan had built up her trade in the Pacific. Countries in Europe formerly buying British goods could not now afford so much, and some of them had made great strides in manufacturing since 1914 and could supply themselves. Britain also found that some of her factories had to compete with new and cheaper methods which had been developed elsewhere. She was also affected by the rising importance of oil and hydro-electric power, neither of which she had in abundance. The demand for British coal was decreasing and her production of iron and steel was being surpassed by the United States and Germany. The export of textiles also fell off partly because of new fabrics which were competing with cottons and woollens, and partly because of increasing production elsewhere. Japanese textiles were very cheap, and the mills started in India were supplying much of the needs of that great market. Britain was still a very important manufacturing nation, but her position was greatly changed as compared with the nineteenth century when she led the world as an industrial country. This loss of markets led to serious unemployment, and many towns and areas which had been built up on one industry became what were called 'depressed areas'. This was true especially of places depending on textiles, ship building, mining, and iron and steel production.

Britain also was hit hard by her loss of income, while at the same time she still had to buy large amounts of imports. About

The First World War

sixty per cent of her food supply came from overseas, and she needed many raw materials such as cotton, oil, and rubber. Her loss of income was the result chiefly of two things. Before 1914 she had received a great deal of income from the earnings of her merchant ships and from the interest on her investments abroad. Both of these sources had been greatly reduced by the war. She had lost over 5,600 vessels from submarines, and though she still had the largest merchant fleet in the world this loss was very serious. During the war other countries took over a great deal of the carrying trade, and even when new British merchant ships were built after the war a great deal of this trade could not be gained back. As for her investments, she had spent large amounts of them in buying war supplies, especially from the United States, and no longer got the interest from this money. She had also borrowed large amounts from the United States, and at the same time had lent large amounts to her European allies who were now unable to pay her back. Even when these countries failed to pay anything on their debts,

EFFECTS OF THE WAR ON BRITAIN'S ECONOMY

LOSS OF EXPORT TRADE IN —

SHIPS

COAL

IRON & STEEL

COTTONS WOOLENS

UNEMPLOYMENT

BRITAIN UNABLE TO COLLECT FROM EUROPEAN DEBTORS

TO PAY U.S. CREDITOR,

IRISH TROUBLE LEADS TO CREATION OF IRISH FREE STATE

EIRE

UNDER LEAGUE MANDATE BRITAIN GAINS GERMAN COLONIES

WOMEN GIVEN THE VOTE

LABOUR MOVEMENT GATHERS STRENGTH

LOCAL #231

PRINCE OF WALES A GOODWILL AMBASSADOR

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE & BEGINNINGS OF SOCIAL SERVICE

Britain continued to make payments to the United States. If she could have collected the amounts she had lent, her debt to the United States would not have been serious. In looking at the effect of the war, we must, of course, not make too much of the dark side. Britain was still one of the world's great powers with resources not only in her own islands but in her Empire. Above all, in industry, in government and in world affairs, her leaders and people had wisdom and long experience which were worth a great deal. Her position was, however, changed as compared with the period before 1914, when she was the world's financial and shipping centre.

In the 1920's efforts of various kinds were made to meet the problems of loss of markets and unemployment. Attempts were made to bring new life to industries. New factories were encouraged by the promise of lower tax rates while they were being established. Cheaper power was made available by the government taking over electric power plants. These were united into a single system called the national grid. To protect industries from articles made in countries with lower standards, Parliament placed tariffs on certain articles coming into Britain. To regain former markets and seek new ones, the government sent representatives abroad or made trade treaties where it was possible to develop trade in that way. Among the ambassadors of friendship who visited other parts of the world, none was more popular than the Prince of Wales, later Edward VIII, who won the good will of people not only throughout the Empire but in the United States and other countries.

Unemployment was the most difficult of all the country's problems, and as usual the people looked to Parliament for leadership. The government tried to relieve the effects of unemployment by payments from unemployment insurance funds and later by direct relief. Social services, such as allowances for widows and orphans, were also increased. Unemployment continued to grow, however, and after 1929, when the whole world was struck by depression,

the situation became much worse. By 1931 relief payments were costing the country one million pounds per week.

These difficulties and problems caused great changes in the political parties. Greater support came especially to the Labour Party, which proposed to improve conditions by more social services and more public works. The Labour Party also wanted a policy of socialism by which the government would take over ownership and control of mines, railways, and large industries such as steel. In 1924, and again in 1929 the Labour Party with the support of Liberal members formed a government. The Labour Party did not, however, win a real majority in Parliament, and was not able to carry out its more extreme ideas. So it seemed that the British people as usual were willing to experiment, but were also determined to go gradually in making changes.

One unfortunate effect of the war was on relations with Ireland. The failure of Gladstone to win Home Rule for Ireland in the last years of the nineteenth century had left a bitter dispute behind it both in Parliament and in Ireland, and extreme Irish leaders wished to sever the ties with England. In 1914 a law to make Ireland a Dominion was passed but was not put into effect owing to the war. Many Irish looked upon this as an act of treachery, and gave support to the 'Sinn Fein' party which aimed to make Ireland a republic. In 1916, the Sinn Feiners staged the 'Easter Rebellion' in Dublin, and its suppression aroused more hard feelings. Thus, in spite of the fact that many thousands of Irish supported the war effort, Ireland itself became more and more divided. The deepest division was between the six northern counties, known as Ulster, where the majority of the people were Protestants, and the rest of the country, which was strongly Roman Catholic. Ulster was determined to continue as part of the United Kingdom, and was bitterly opposed to the Sinn Fein movement. After the war the Sinn Fein leaders disregarded British authority and set up their own officials in Southern Ireland. Acts of murder and violence followed. The British government in Ireland then organized a special force called the Black and Tans to meet

violence with violence, and so the country rapidly drifted into a brutal civil war.

This unhappy strife had to be stopped, and in 1921 the British government seized the opportunity to make a treaty giving Southern Ireland self-government on the same basis as the Dominions. Thus the Irish Free State, or Eire, came into existence. Ulster remained part of the United Kingdom, but was given a large measure of Home Rule. Although the treaty of 1921 was accepted in Southern Ireland, Sinn Fein leaders were determined to work toward complete independence and toward the union of all Ireland under one government. So the bitter relations of the past could unfortunately not be forgotten, and the Irish problem was by no means settled.

5. How the Commonwealth Began

The Dominions entered the war as colonies of Britain, and came out of it as young nations, not only controlling their own affairs but also recognized by other countries as independent nations, though still belonging to the family of nations called the British Commonwealth. Nothing like this creation of the Commonwealth had ever happened before, and we should not be surprised that other countries, like the United States for example, found it difficult to understand. The United States and many other countries had become independent by violent revolution, and it was hard for them to imagine any other way. In the Dominions like Canada and Australia, however, it seemed natural to become independent by growing from colonies into nations. Already before 1914 the Dominions were controlling their home affairs, and it scarcely seemed necessary to have a violent revolution in order to take over control of external affairs too. Peaceful change is much better than civil war, but it has not been as common a way for nations to gain independence.

This change to the Commonwealth came in several steps, and the first one was to persuade the British government to treat the Dominions as nations in the First World War. At the beginning of the war the British government took for granted that each Dominion would decide for itself what forces it would supply, but that the British government would decide how these forces should be used. The government in London could not easily see how making and carrying out plans could be divided up among Britain and the Dominions. Certainly this would be difficult. Nevertheless Canada and the other Dominions very soon became unwilling to supply forces and have nothing to say about controlling them. In this situation Canada took the lead, and at the beginning of 1916 Prime Minister Borden wrote a letter which showed the British government how serious this matter was. "It can hardly be expected," Borden wrote, "that we shall put 400,000 to 500,000 men in the field, and willingly accept the position of having no more consideration than if we were toy automata"—that is automatic toys with someone else pulling the strings. One effect of Borden's demands was that the Canadian army was a little later put under a Canadian commander for the first time, General (later Sir) Arthur Currie. More important as a step toward the Commonwealth was what happened when Lloyd George came into power as Britain's Prime Minister. Lloyd George saw that a change must be made, and the result was something really new, an 'Imperial War Cabinet', in which the Dominions became partners of Britain in planning the war effort, rather than colonies governing merely their home affairs. This was a big step toward full nationhood, and, although other steps would be necessary before the Commonwealth was fully created, the idea of a Commonwealth of free and independent nations was taking root and the word Commonwealth was beginning to be used. The important leaders in this remarkable change were Prime Minister Borden and General Smuts, the Prime Minister of South Africa, along with Lloyd George who was willing to give his support and encouragement.

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH EMERGES



1923 —
CANADA
SIGNS
HER OWN
TREATY
WITH
U.S.A.



THE COMMONWEALTH



A second step came at the end of the war, when Canada and the other Dominions were each allowed to send representatives to the Peace Conference in Paris, and after the Conference became members of the League of Nations. These events meant that the Dominions had to be recognized as nations by other countries than Britain, and especially by the United States and France, which were the two other most important nations at the Conference. Again it was Canada which took the lead in demanding a place in the Conference, but the British government backed up the demand and persuaded the United States and France to agree. So the Peace Conference recognized the Dominions as independent nations, though still belonging to a Commonwealth of free nations—something new in international law.

With the Commonwealth clearly developing in this way, other steps soon followed after the war. Only a few can be mentioned, but they illustrate how Canada and the other Dominions were growing as nations. The Dominions took an active part in the League of Nations,

and a few years after the war Canada, for example, was chosen as one of the nine members of the League's Council. The Dominions also began more and more to carry on their own diplomatic relations with foreign countries instead of having them carried on through the British government and British ambassadors. In 1923, for instance, a treaty made with the United States about the Pacific halibut fishery was signed in Washington by the representative of the Canadian government instead of first by the British ambassador. Canada thus began to make and sign all her own treaties. In 1927, for the first time Canada also sent her own diplomatic representative to the United States, and since then embassies have been established in many other countries. From that time Canada's Department of External Affairs grew rapidly.

Finally there were other steps which showed that the Commonwealth was becoming clearly understood by its own members. In 1926, for example there was an Imperial Conference which tried to make a definition of the Commonwealth. This was not easy, but the Conference drew up a statement which became famous. This Declaration of Equality, as it has been called, said that Britain and the Dominions were 'autonomous' (i.e. completely self-governing) communities, in no way under each other's control, "though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations". Like the American Declaration of Independence, just one hundred and fifty years earlier, this Declaration of Equality is a milestone in the history of the English-speaking world.

Another step, which was needed to carry the Declaration of Equality into effect, was the passing of the Statute of West-



minster, by the British Parliament in 1931. This said that no law of Britain should apply to any Dominion unless the Dominion wished, and that no Dominion law should be declared void on the ground that it was contrary to a British law. Thus the Dominions became completely free to do what they wished about any British laws which applied to them. Canada requested, for example, that the British North America Act should remain as an act of the British Parliament, until Canada worked out a method of amending her constitution.

When, then, did Canada and the other Dominions of that time become independent? Perhaps, to help answer this question, you might ask your mother or father or teacher, when did he or she

A MILESTONE IN

THE BALFOUR REPORT

1926

The Dominions are autonomous Communities---in no way subordinate one to another---united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations...

THE COMMONWEALTH STORY

grow up? We usually say that people become adults on their twenty-first birthday, but we all know that no one feels much more grown up on his twenty-first birthday than he did the day before, even though he may get some rights like the right to vote at that time. In some places, however, the right to vote is given at

eighteen. In fact, most adults can mention several dates which were important in growing up, and which was most important may be hard to say. So it was with the Dominions like Canada and Australia. Perhaps you might pick on the Statute of Westminster as their twenty-first birthday—but does it really matter? The important thing is that they did become nations, and chose to do it, not by making a violent break, but by helping to create out of the Empire something new, a Commonwealth of free nations.

6. What is the Commonwealth?

We have said a good deal about how the Commonwealth came into existence, but not much about what it

is. Of course, we know that the Commonwealth is made up of free nations which co-operate in many ways with one another, and which choose to recognize the Queen and Crown as symbols binding them together. We also can name the members of the Commonwealth, and we know that the membership has changed somewhat. For example, as we shall see later, India, Ceylon, and Pakistan, when they became independent after the Second World War, chose to stay in the Commonwealth. Eire, on the other hand, chose to withdraw. Thus the Commonwealth is a group of free nations held together not by force but by their own choice and with the Crown as a symbol of their co-operation.

This definition is good as far as it goes, but it does not tell how and why the Commonwealth is held together, and these are the really interesting questions. So let us go a little further.

Since the Commonwealth countries are held together by their free choice, they are not joined by any treaty or by any general laws which they are all bound to obey. Each has full control over its own affairs, such as its trade, immigration, or armed forces. Each even is free to make treaties with other countries, like the arrangements for defence between Canada and the United States. Commonwealth countries are thus more tied by treaties with other countries than they are with each other.

There are, however, advantages in Commonwealth membership which help to hold them together. All citizens of Canada, for example, are both Canadian citizens and British subjects. This means that anywhere in the world they can appeal for assistance to ambassadors or consuls of the United Kingdom, if there is no Canadian representative near at hand. To travellers or people with property in foreign countries this may be very useful. Also, Canadians who go to other Commonwealth countries, like the United Kingdom, may enjoy all the rights of citizens without being naturalized. In a world where it is getting more and more difficult to move about freely such privileges are important.

There are other ways, too, in which the Commonwealth countries co-operate. Their governments exchange information and consult

with each other freely, and in ways that are not common in the foreign relations of most countries. With aeroplanes and telephones this is far more possible than it used to be. Within a few minutes Canada's Prime Minister, or some member of his Cabinet can be connected with London or another Commonwealth capital by telephone, or within a few hours he may cross the ocean by air. What a difference as compared even with the beginning of the twentieth century! The result is that regular Commonwealth Conferences, like the former Imperial Conferences, are not necessary. They are now called whenever needed. They may be arranged quickly, and are held in various parts of the Commonwealth, rather than in London only. Some of these conferences make arrangements about trade or other matters: such as the conference in Ceylon in 1950 out of which came the Colombo plan to give help to the Commonwealth countries of Asia. Other conferences may be for discussion only, such as that in Ottawa in 1952, which consisted of representatives from the Parliaments of the Commonwealth countries. Sometimes an important conference of Commonwealth Prime Ministers is held like that in London in December, 1952. Also at the meetings of the United Nations and of international conferences, Commonwealth representatives find opportunities for discussion and co-operation. Such discussions help people to understand each other's problems.

For Canada, the Commonwealth relation has a particular value because of her close relation with the United States. The warm friendship between the United States and Canada is of great value to both countries. The smaller nation, however, is always in danger of being overshadowed, and the Commonwealth connection thus helps to keep a good balance in Canada's external relations. This does not mean a clash, because it is also in the interest of the United States to have a firm friendship with the Commonwealth, if the cause of democracy and world peace is to be strengthened.

If we think of all the ties holding the Commonwealth together, we see that it is something like a *family* of nations, and perhaps we can understand it best if we think of it in that way. A family is not

usually bound together by legal ties, after its members grow up. In fact, some of them may go into partnership with other people, just as nations make treaties, and yet the family remains important. The family is thus a special kind of friendship which does not depend on legal ties, and it is either weak or strong according to what its members make of it. So it is with the Commonwealth which is not bound together by treaties, but which will be of advantage to all its members as long as they make it so.

We should realize too that the Commonwealth is important not only to its own members. It encourages international co-operation among other nations throughout the world. It has been a help, not a hindrance, in the United Nations, and with its members in Asia it helps bridge the gap between the Far East and the West. In a world which is divided and often troubled by quarrels and conflicts, the Commonwealth has thus made a very great contribution to world understanding and world peace.

Learn by Doing

1. Write a report for a newspaper describing the reason for the start of the war and the entrance of the large countries into it. (1)
2. Prepare a brief report which the president of the United States might have made to Congress suggesting the reasons for the United States entering the war. (2)
3. Make a sand-table model of the war area on the western front. (2)
4. A committee of pupils may picture and describe the campaigns in the eastern Mediterranean region. (2)
5. A panel of members representing the various countries of the Commonwealth may describe the contributions of each country to the war. (3)
6. Read Section 4 and carry on an open class discussion outlining the reasons for Britain's difficulties after the First War.
7. Seven pupils show the significance of the following events in the development of the Commonwealth. (5)
 - (a) An Imperial War Cabinet during World War I.
 - (b) The Peace Conference in Paris.
 - (c) The establishment of the League of Nations.
 - (d) The Pacific Halibut Fishery Treaty.
 - (e) The Imperial Conference, 1926.
 - (f) Canada sends a diplomatic representative to the United States.
 - (g) The Statute of Westminster.

Facts to Know

1. Why did Turkey and Russia enter the First World War? (1)
2. Name the powers belonging to the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance. (1)
3. What effect did the invention of the submarine have on the course of the war? (2)
4. List new weapons which were introduced for the first time in the First World War. (2)

5. Why did Italy join the allies in spite of the fact that she had been a member of the Triple Alliance? (2)
6. Why did Russia withdraw from the war in 1917? (2)
7. Name new countries which were formed in Europe after the Peace Treaty. To what countries did these areas formerly belong? (2)
8. List some of Canada's contributions to the war effort. (3)
9. Explain this sentence. "The Commonwealth countries are held together by their free choice." (5)
10. What are the advantages of being a member of the Commonwealth? (6)
11. How is the Commonwealth like a family? (6)

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UNIT ELEVEN

THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE SECOND WORLD WAR

1. *Britain Faces the Depression*
2. *The War Clouds Gather*
3. *The Second World War*
4. *The Commonwealth in the War*
5. *The Effects of the War on the Commonwealth*
6. *Post-War Britain*

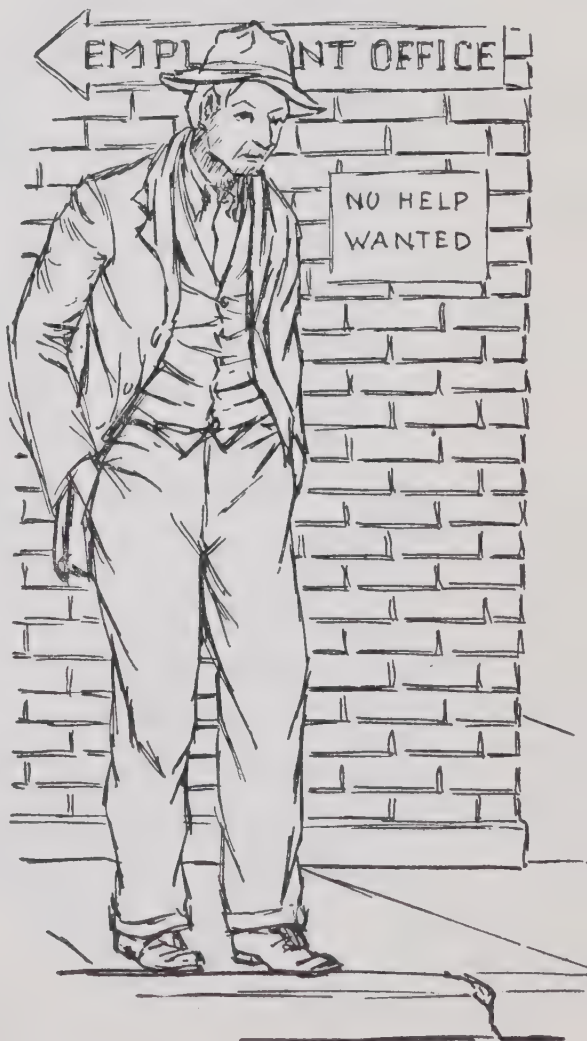
In 1929 the world was suddenly struck by a calamity which brought suffering to millions of people in many countries. This calamity, the Great Depression as it has been called, lasted through most of the 1930's, and was one of the main causes of the Second World War which broke out in 1939.

What was the Great Depression? It was a period of 'bad times' in which millions were thrown out of work, prices and wages fell to terribly low levels, trade declined everywhere, factories closed, farmers could not sell what they grew, and the unemployed could not buy even at the low prices for which everything was

offered. Worse even than poverty and hunger were the feelings of hopelessness and bitterness which seized vast numbers of people. Their minds were depressed even more than their pocket books.

To tell what the Great Depression was, is easier than to say why it came about. Indeed, economists who study such matters are by no means agreed on all its causes, but some are clear. Though the 1920's had been for the most part a period of prosperity, there were many unsettled problems. Every country but the United States was burdened down by enormous debts, and efforts to settle these debts by international agreement had failed. Almost every country began to raise its tariffs to protect its industries, and this cut down trade between countries just when it should have been encouraged. Enormous amounts of money had been borrowed at high rates of interest by companies to build new factories or by farmers to buy machinery, and when prices began to fall these debts could not be paid. There was also overproduction in agriculture in some countries. Production had been greatly increased during the war, and now the farmer could not afford to produce less, especially when prices were falling. So prices fell still lower.

Thus, for various reasons, the world was not consuming or properly distributing the goods which it was producing, and nations were not co-operating to solve the problems of trade, tariffs, and international debts, which had got beyond the power of any one country to handle. The nations were, in fact, just beginning to learn one of the great lessons of the twentieth century—that in war or peace they depended upon one another, that war in one part would



affect every other part, and that prosperity or depression in one nation would affect every other nation too. So the Canadian prairie farmer, who had to burn his wheat to keep warm, was hit by the same depression as the British or German miner or factory worker who could get no work and had nothing with which to feed or clothe his family.

1. Britain Faces the Depression

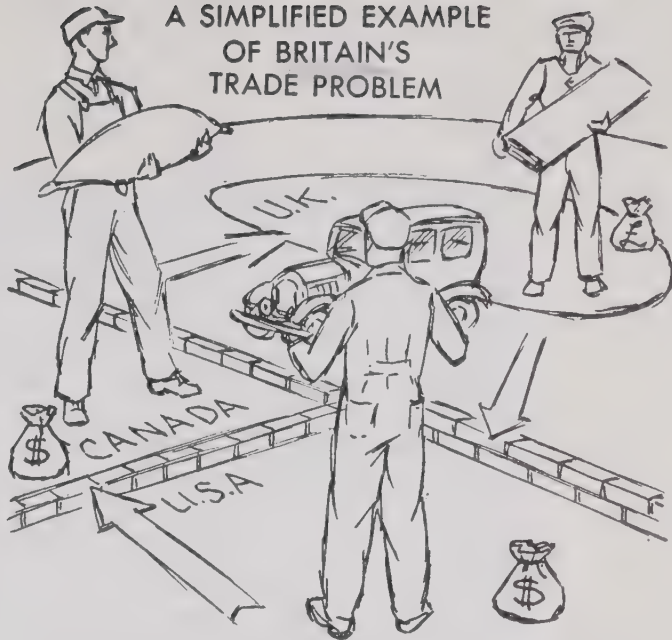
Britain was hard hit by the depression, and by 1931 she was in its depths. All through the 1920's she had had serious unemployment. She had lost some of her markets in countries which were developing their own manufactures, and the high tariffs which these countries were putting on made her difficulties still greater. The high tariff of the United States, which had been boosted higher than ever in 1928, was especially serious since Britain could only pay her war debt to the United States by selling her manufactures there, and the American tariff made this very difficult. For several years the Conservatives had been saying that Britain must drop Free Trade and protect her own manufactures by putting on tariffs.

After 1929 things quickly went from bad to worse, and soon a crisis was reached. Unemployment was mounting, the nation was being drained of its gold to pay its debts, and it seemed that the country might go bankrupt. Such a crisis demanded a National Government, and in 1931 a new cabinet was formed with the leaders of all three parties in it—Labour, Conservative, and Liberal. Many of the Labour members of Parliament would not support the new cabinet, however, because it intended not only to raise taxes but to reduce the government's spending which would mean less relief for the unemployed. So the new National Government had more support from the Conservatives than from anyone else.

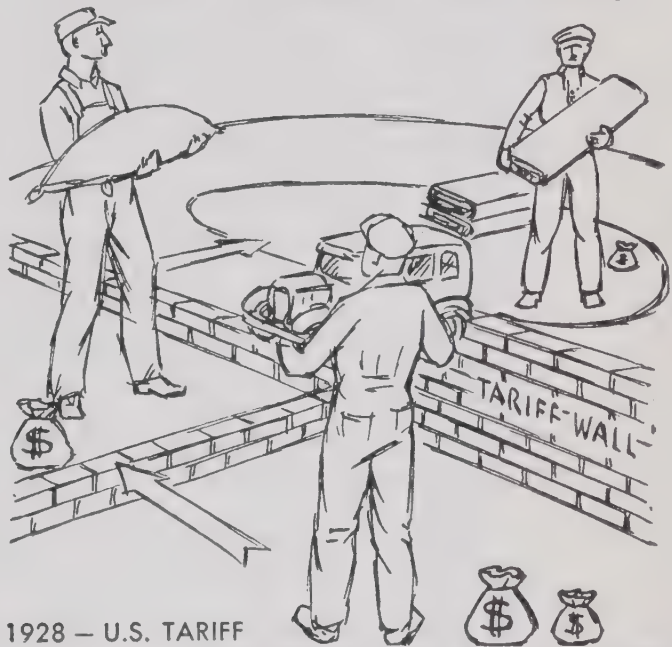
The Second World War

The new National Government did meet the crisis by increasing taxes and reducing spending, and soon the threat of bankruptcy passed, though the basic problems such as declining markets still remained. A system of tariffs also was brought in, and so Britain dropped Free Trade after having it for nearly a century. Many people regretted this as Britain had been the one country that traded freely with the whole world, and London had been the world's banking centre.

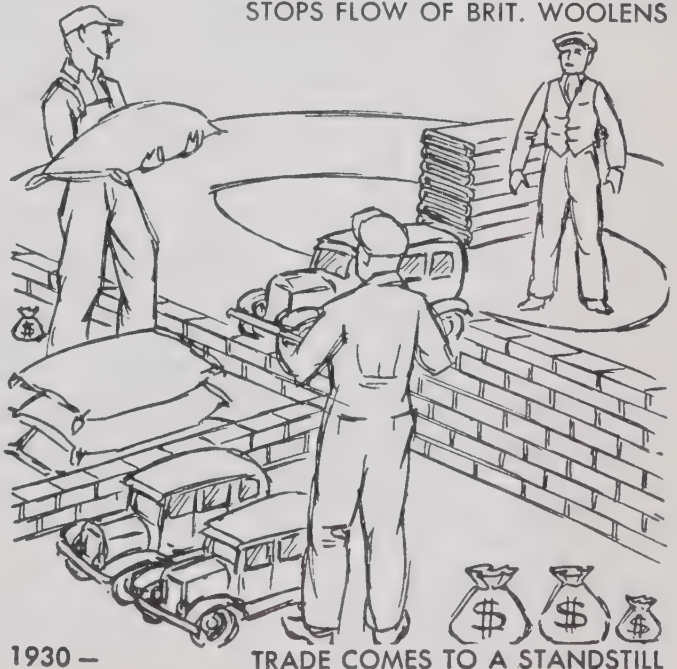
It was felt that at least in the Commonwealth, trade should be kept as free as possible, and with this in mind a conference of all the Commonwealth Prime Ministers was held in Ottawa in 1934. This was the first Commonwealth conference held outside Britain and showed that the younger Commonwealth countries were growing up. Canadians were greatly interested in having this conference in their capital and in seeing the Commonwealth leaders from all parts of the world. The conference drew up the Ottawa Agreements, as they have been called, which resulted in lowering some of the tariffs on trade between Commonwealth coun-



1926 - NORMAL THREE-WAY FLOW OF GOODS



1928 - U.S. TARIFF
STOPS FLOW OF BRIT. WOOLENS



1930 -
TRADE COMES TO A STANDSTILL

tries, but none of the countries like Canada was willing to lower tariffs entirely on Commonwealth trade as each wished to protect its own manufactures. The Ottawa Conference showed, however, that the Commonwealth countries wished to discuss their problems like the members of a friendly family. The ties between them were still much stronger than many people imagined.

In 1936 King George V died. He had reigned for over a quarter of a century and had come to be one of the most loved of British kings. He was greatly admired because of his modest but unceasing devotion to his duty and because he played the proper part of a king in a democracy—a symbol of the whole people, working equally well with whatever ministers came to form the government as the result of the people's decision in elections. He knew every part of the Commonwealth and Empire, and studied every public question carefully. It is said he was one of the best informed men in Britain. He never took sides in politics, and the people trusted him, but it was well known that his advice was worth listening to, and sometimes behind the scenes he had an important influence. When the National Government was formed in 1931, for instance, he had a large share in bringing the leaders of the three parties together. His family life was a good example to his people. His voice became known around the world, for radio came in during his reign and he was the first British monarch to broadcast the annual Christmas message. During his reign also the Commonwealth was created, and he became king not only of Great Britain and the Empire, but of each of the Commonwealth countries. Queen Mary was no less beloved than her husband.

George V's reign was followed by one of the strangest in British history, that of Edward VIII. Not only was it one of the shortest—less than a year—but it ended by the king abdicating or resigning. When Prince of Wales, Edward VIII had travelled all over the Commonwealth and Empire and he was known and admired everywhere. Soon after he came to the throne, he wished to marry a woman who was being divorced

from her husband. He was advised however, that this would not be acceptable either in Britain or in the Commonwealth countries, each of which now had the right to make up its mind about its allegiance to the monarch. Rather than give up "the woman I love" as he said, Edward VIII resigned and became the Duke of Windsor. In a broadcast explaining his decision, he promised allegiance to his younger brother who now became George VI.

It was well known that George VI did not wish to take on the heavy responsibility of being king, but like his father he would not shrink from his duty and he too became an example of what the democratic monarch should be. When he and his beautiful queen visited Canada in 1939, they were greeted with demonstrations of loyalty and affection from Atlantic to Pacific. The dictators of Europe never showed themselves in public without being surrounded by armed guards, but everywhere the king and queen mingled freely with their people. They were the first British king and queen to visit America and when they visited the United States they were welcomed as ambassadors of goodwill. When the king laid a wreath on George Washington's tomb people's imaginations were stirred. Everyone realized that old wounds were being healed and that Britain, Canada and the United States were coming to understand each other better. George VI was making friendships which George III had helped to break in the days of the American Revolution. As the war clouds gathered, here at least was a sign of hope and encouragement.

2. The War Clouds Gather

In September, 1931, a piece of railway was blown up on the mainland of Asia opposite Japan; and Japan, claiming that her property had been attacked, marched troops into Manchuria and began to seize the country. People in many countries were shocked at Japan's lawless action. She was a

member of the League of Nations, and had promised not to attack other countries, but it was well known that her government was in the hands of warlike men who would stop at nothing if they thought they could succeed. Only four years before one of them had written, "In order to conquer the world Japan must conquer Europe and Asia; in order to conquer Asia Japan must first conquer China; and in order to conquer China Japan must conquer Manchuria."

Without doubt Japan's leaders made this attack on Manchuria to see how far they could go, and it soon became clear that no one was going to stop them. Every country was struggling with the depression and the League of Nations could do nothing unless its leading members like Britain and France were willing to take strong action, which they were unwilling to do. Smaller countries like Canada felt the same way. Canadians would have liked to have seen Japan stopped, but they did not think Manchuria was something Canada should fight about. Probably most Canadians scarcely knew where Manchuria was. So Japan defied the League of Nations, and then got out of it so that she could go forward on her path of conquest. The United States, which was

not a member of the League, also wanted to see Japan stopped, and for a time it looked as if the United States and the League might work together, but this failed and Japan went on her way.

The depression was one of the chief reasons for these alarming events and for others which followed. In every country there were great numbers of people—in some countries millions—who were unemployed, discontented, often hungry and miserable, and governments everywhere had to think of these



JAPANESE EMPIRE 1931

The Second World War

people. Countries like Britain, France, the United States, and Canada, which were burdened with taxes and problems at home did not want to risk war to stop Japan from making conquests. This encouraged Japan's warlords, and they promised the Japanese that conquests would bring them prosperity.

Soon there were alarming signs in another place, this time nearer home, in Germany. After the First World War a republic was set up in Germany, but this democratic government had great difficulties. The Germans were not used to democracy, and even before the depression became serious a new party arose, the National Socialist or Nazi party, which told the German people that the republic should be overthrown and the government put under a dictator. Hitler, the Nazi leader, told the Germans that they were a super-race, that they should drive out all the Jews, and throw off the Treaty of Versailles that had been made after the First World War. He said that the German armies had never been defeated in the field and that Germany could conquer the world. When



the depression hit Germany hard, Hitler claimed that he could lead Germany out of it and that he could give her both 'guns and butter'. Millions of Germans, especially the youth, who had not before listened to this wild-eyed booster began to turn to him, and in 1933 he was able to seize the government. With his brutal police and army all opposition was beaten down, and through the radio and newspapers propaganda was dinned into the German people.

Hitler seemed to be imitating Mussolini, another dictator, who had seized the government of Italy a few years before, but soon he was going far beyond Mussolini. In 1936 he was ready for his first bold step, the seizure of the Ruhr Valley with its rich coal and iron industries. When he marched his troops into the Ruhr he broke the Treaty of Versailles and defied Britain and France. We know now that strong action at that point would probably have stopped Hitler; but, as in the case of Japan, Britain, France, and the League of Nations did not want to risk war.

Germany's re-arming now speeded up, and in the next three years events began to move fast. In 1936 a bloody civil war started



in Spain, when the Spanish general, Franco, came from North Africa to set up a dictatorship. Hitler and Mussolini sent troops and aeroplanes to help him, and Russia helped his opponents. Hitler was trying out his new weapons. In that same year, Mussolini defied the League of Nations and invaded the little country of Abyssinia in Africa. Mussolini had dreams of an African empire and helpless little Abyssinia was an easy victim for his tanks and planes. All this time Japan had been strengthening her position in Manchuria, and in 1937 she launched her attack from

CHAMBERLAIN RETURNS FROM MUNICH

there on China. By now Hitler was ready for real action, and in 1938 he marched his troops into Austria, seized the government and turned the country into a German province.

With Austria in Germany's power Czechoslovakia was threatened from three sides and Hitler now turned on her, demanding that she give up her strong defences on Germany's borders. Britain, France, and Russia all had treaties with Czechoslovakia, but Britain and France decided that if an agreement were made with Hitler war might be avoided. So Prime Minister Chamberlain flew to Munich and a treaty was made by which Czechoslovakia gave up her border fortifications. Czechoslovakia was now helpless, and in the very next spring Hitler broke his word and seized the country.

Poland was next on his list, and when he began to attack her with threats and demands, it was clear that he would not wait long. Britain was now thoroughly aroused. Britain and France could send Poland little help since she was on the other side of Germany, but they saw that a stand must be made if Hitler was ever to be stopped. So they warned Germany that if she attacked Poland they would declare war. What would Russia do? This was a great question, but at the last moment it was settled to Hitler's satisfaction. Russia consented to make a secret treaty of neutrality with him by which she was to get part of eastern Poland.

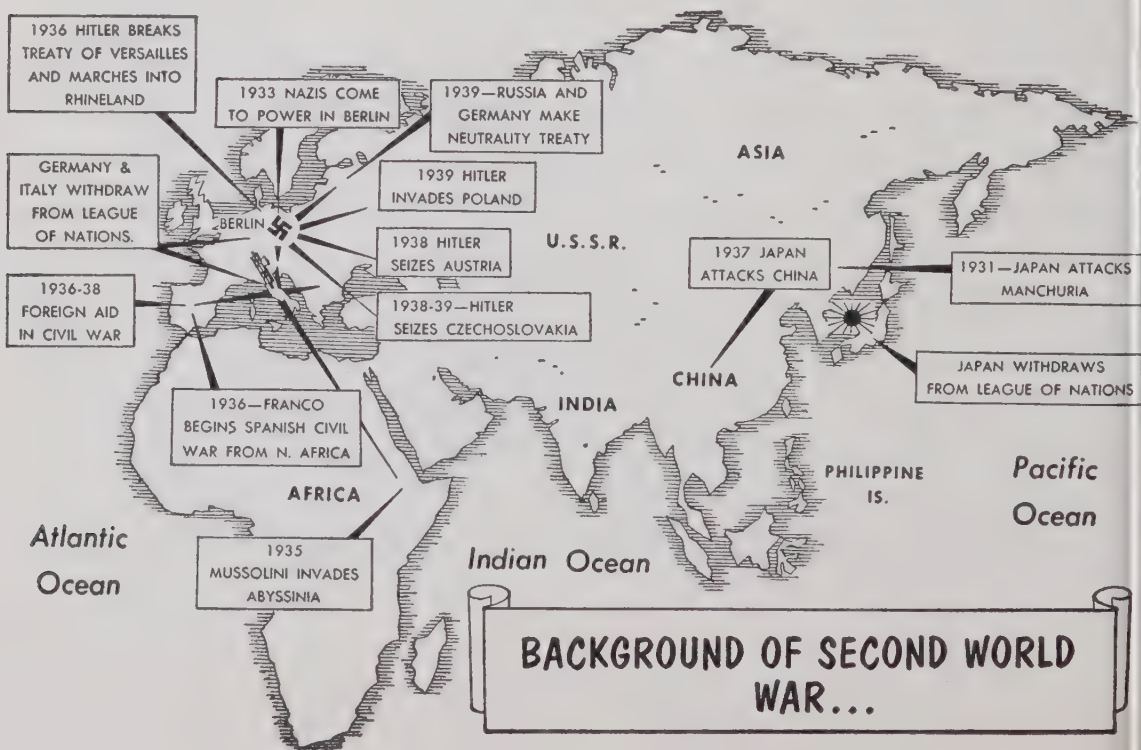
Hitler was now free to attack and a week later his tanks swept into Poland. Poland's position was hopeless, but Britain and France true to their word declared war on Germany two days later, on September 3, 1939. The Second World War had begun. In the face of Hitler's threats to world peace there was no doubt as to what the other countries of the Commonwealth would do. But each country of the Commonwealth was now free to make its own choice. In Canada, Parliament was called as quickly as possible and on September 10th it resolved that war be declared on Germany.

Already Canadians had listened to the King's broadcast from

London in which he urged that the Commonwealth stand firm in defence of freedom and against aggressions such as those of Germany: "It is to this high purpose that I now call my people at home and my peoples across the seas, who will make our cause their own. I ask them to stand calm, firm, and united in this time of trial. The task will be hard. There may be dark days ahead, and war can no longer be confined to the battlefield. But we can only do the right as we see the right and commit our cause to God. . . . May He bless and keep us all."

3. The Second World War

With his tanks and aeroplanes Hitler took only three weeks to overrun Poland. In spite of brave resistance, Poland before the end of September was divided between Germany and Russia. Speed, machines, and terror were the marks of this new warfare. Blitzkrieg, or lightning warfare, it was called by the Germans. People, thinking of the First World War, had expected a slow bitter struggle, and France had prepared for this by building a wonderful system of underground forts all along



her German border called the Maginot Line. From the first, however, it became clear that this was to be a war not of trenches but of rapid movement. Before it was over it touched every continent, and every ocean, even the Arctic.

This war was to be one also of science and factories with tanks and aeroplanes in thousands, with magnetic mines and submarines that could travel thousands of miles, with paratroopers dropped from the skies, and with wonderful new inventions like radar and finally the atom bomb. The First World War had also, of course, been one of science and factories especially at its close, but the Second World War carried these things far beyond anything imagined before. Thousands of scientists worked on each side, and the war was won as much in the laboratory as on the field. Millions of people felt that it was a terrible thing for men to use their marvellous discoveries to kill one another, and that after the war science should be used to improve civilization, not to destroy it. Fortunately many discoveries like radar are as valuable in peace as in war, and so the work of science was not all turned to destruction.

In spite of the importance of science and machines, people were more important, as the democracies always believe they are. The war was won by the infantryman on the ground, by the airman in the clouds, by the sailor guiding his ship past mines and submarines, by the nurse in the hospital, by the factory worker, and by the millions of men, women, and children in Britain who faced the enemy's bombs. From the King and Queen in Buckingham Palace to the humblest family in London everyone was in the front line, and this feeling of sharing dangers did almost more than anything else to keep up the determination of the British people in the darkest days of the struggle.

When Hitler had conquered Poland, it seemed sure that he would turn west against France, but to the surprise of everyone he did not, and as the weeks passed some people, especially in America, began to call the war a 'phoney' war. During these months Russia attacked Finland and after beating her down took

GERMAN POWER 1932



1942



1952



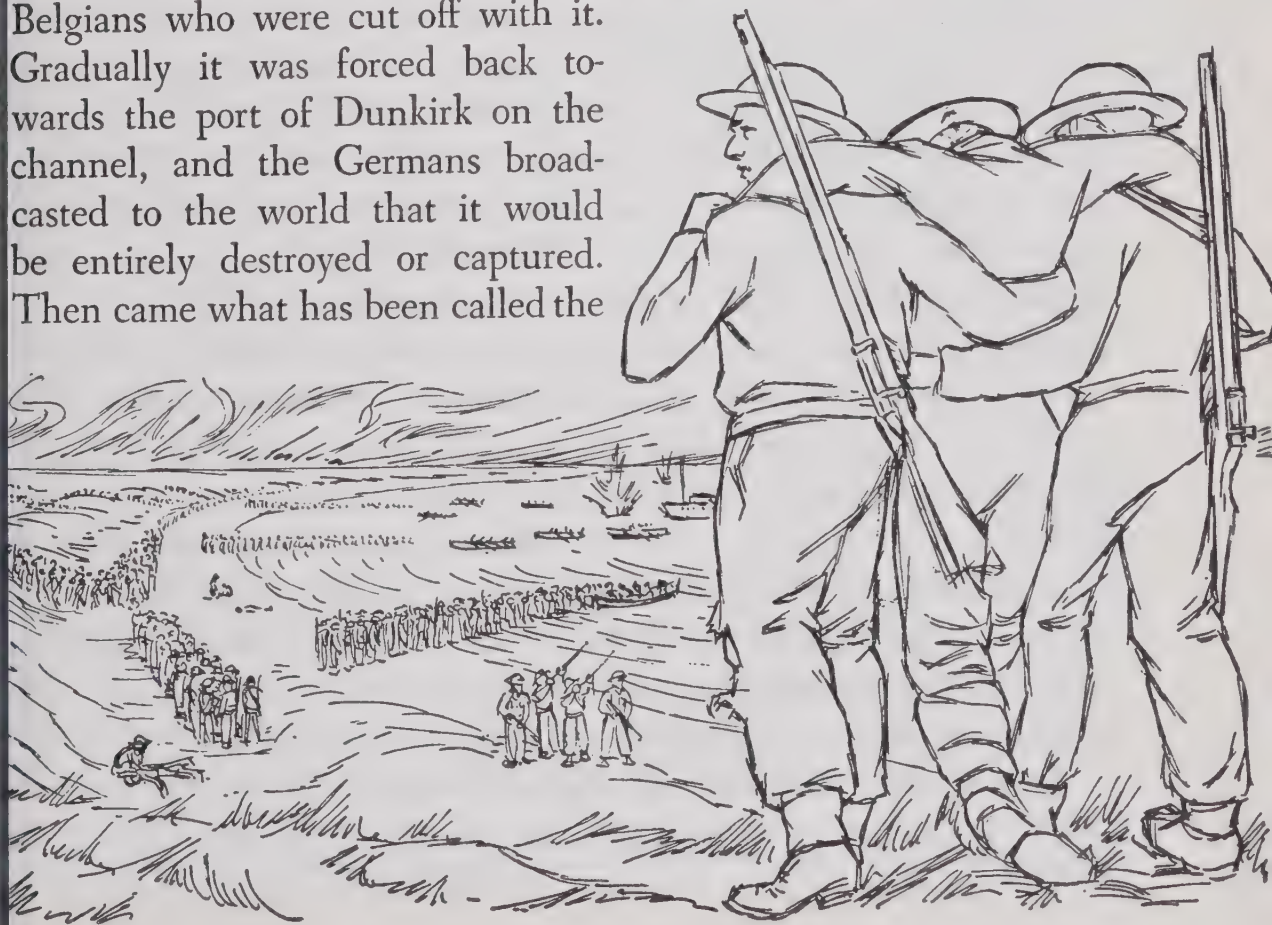
some of the border lands which lay between them. Many people in the west sympathized with Finland but nothing could be done to help her. So the winter passed and the spring of 1940 began. Then came the blitzkrieg in real earnest.

On the ninth of April, Hitler invaded Denmark and in one day took over the little kingdom which was helpless to oppose him. On the same day German troops and landing parties hidden in German ships attacked Norway in several of her ports. The Norwegians, though completely surprised, began a brave defence. Small forces were soon sent from Britain but the Germans poured troops in and were quickly on the way to victory. Fortunately most of Norway's fine merchant ships escaped Hitler's clutches, and for the rest of the war they had a great share in winning the war at sea.

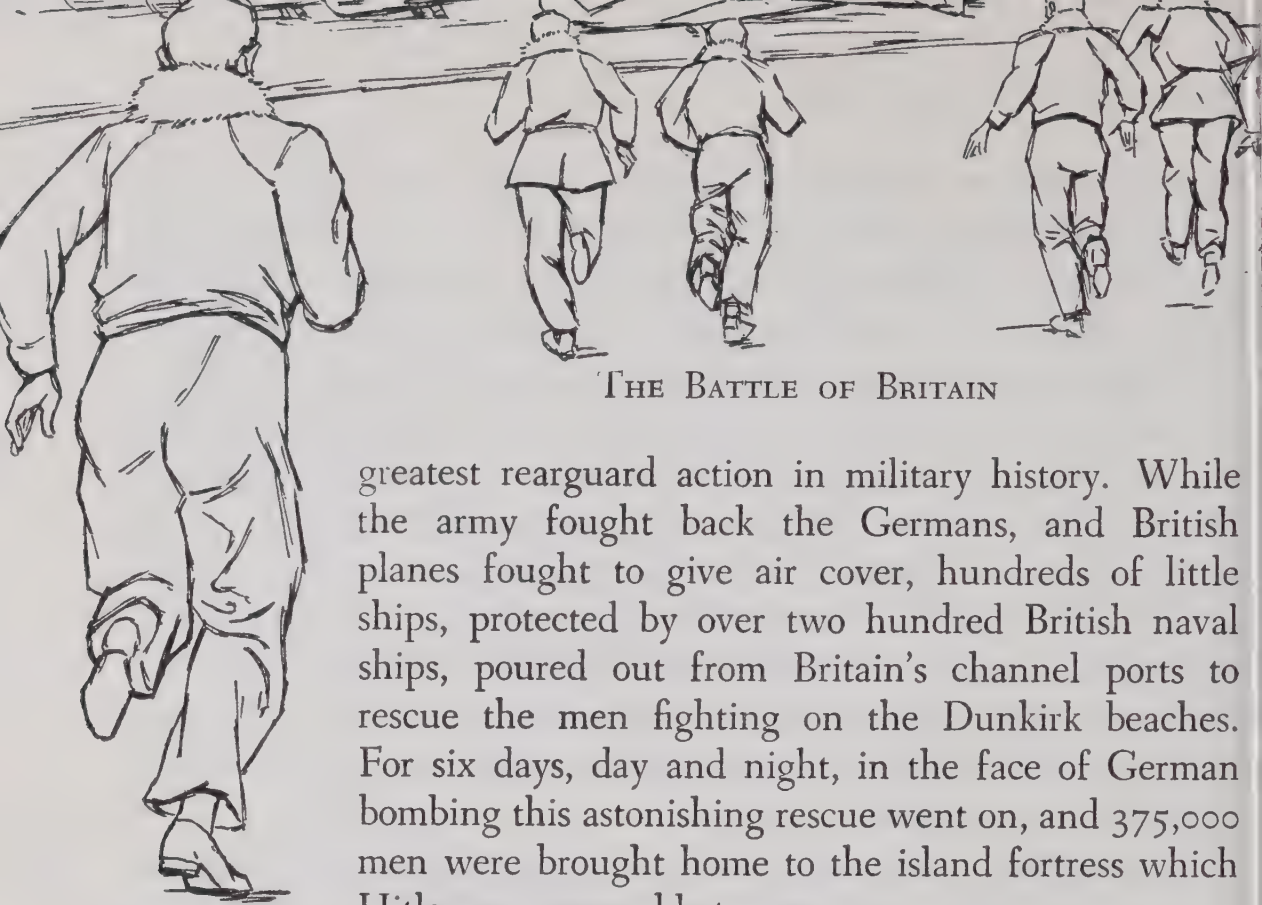
Now Hitler was ready for his big thrust into the west. On the morning of May tenth, just a month after he had invaded Denmark and Norway, his armies without warning broke into Holland, Belgium, and Luxemburg. These little countries had been neutral in the war, and hoped to escape, but the Germans knew that by smashing

through Holland and Belgium they could get around the end of the Maginot Line, and this is just what they did. In five days they had conquered Holland. In Belgium, British, French, and Belgians fought hard, but could not stop the German tanks, aeroplanes, and blitzkrieg methods. Long before the war was over Germany was to be beaten at her own game, but in the spring of 1940 she had it all her own way. Soon the Germans broke through and poured into northern France. Nothing could stop their tanks and aeroplanes. The roads were choked with panic-stricken people fleeing from their homes and this made resistance by the French and British armies even more difficult. On the fourteenth of June Paris fell and a week later France surrendered. In two and a half months Hitler had done what Germany in the whole four years of 1914-18 had failed to do.

Meanwhile a remarkable thing had happened to the British army in Belgium and northern France. When the Germans broke through, the British army retreated toward the English channel fighting desperately and helped by many French and Belgians who were cut off with it. Gradually it was forced back towards the port of Dunkirk on the channel, and the Germans broadcast to the world that it would be entirely destroyed or captured. Then came what has been called the



DUNKIRK



THE BATTLE OF BRITAIN

greatest rearguard action in military history. While the army fought back the Germans, and British planes fought to give air cover, hundreds of little ships, protected by over two hundred British naval ships, poured out from Britain's channel ports to rescue the men fighting on the Dunkirk beaches. For six days, day and night, in the face of German bombing this astonishing rescue went on, and 375,000 men were brought home to the island fortress which Hitler was never able to conquer.

Britain was thrilled by the story of Dunkirk but her position was desperate. In Europe she alone was left to face Hitler's might and she had lost almost all her tanks and heavy artillery. Yet there was no thought of surrender. When Norway was falling a National Government had been formed with Winston Churchill as Prime Minister, and Churchill's words in Parliament now inspired Britain and the Commonwealth as they were to do many times during the war: "We shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender. And even if, which I do not for a moment believe, this island or a part of it were subjugated and starving, then our empire beyond the seas, armed and guarded by the British fleet, would carry on the struggle, until, in God's good time, the New world with all its power and might, steps forth to the rescue and liberation of the Old."

Now came the famous Battle of Britain. To invade Britain

Hitler had to have complete control of the air, and in August, 1940, his air force attacked with all its strength, bombing London and British ports and shipping with terrible destruction. Britain's Air Force was much smaller than Germany's and for weeks it fought a terribly one-sided battle. But if the R.A.F. was outnumbered, it soon showed that its planes and pilots were better than Germany's. It destroyed three times as many planes as the Germans did, and by the end of September Hitler's losses were so great that he had to call off the attack. British airmen—and among them were Canadians and others from other countries—had saved the day. It was one of the war's great turning points. Churchill described what they had done in an unforgettable sentence: "Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few."

1940 was a terrible year, but even in the midst of her defeats Britain hit back a telling blow. The Mediterranean, the Suez Canal, and North Africa were extremely important and Britain could not afford to see Italy and Germany in control there. Gathering all she could of tanks and artillery she sent them around the south end of Africa and up to Egypt. It was a desperate move but it won great results. In a smashing victory in Libya General Wavell took 120,000 Italian prisoners and by the next spring the Italians were driven out of Abyssinia and the Suez region. Indian, Australian, New Zealand, and South African troops shared in these victories along with the British forces. There were still to be long hard campaigns in the Mediterranean region but at the end of 1940 it was clear that Britain and the Commonwealth were far from beaten there.

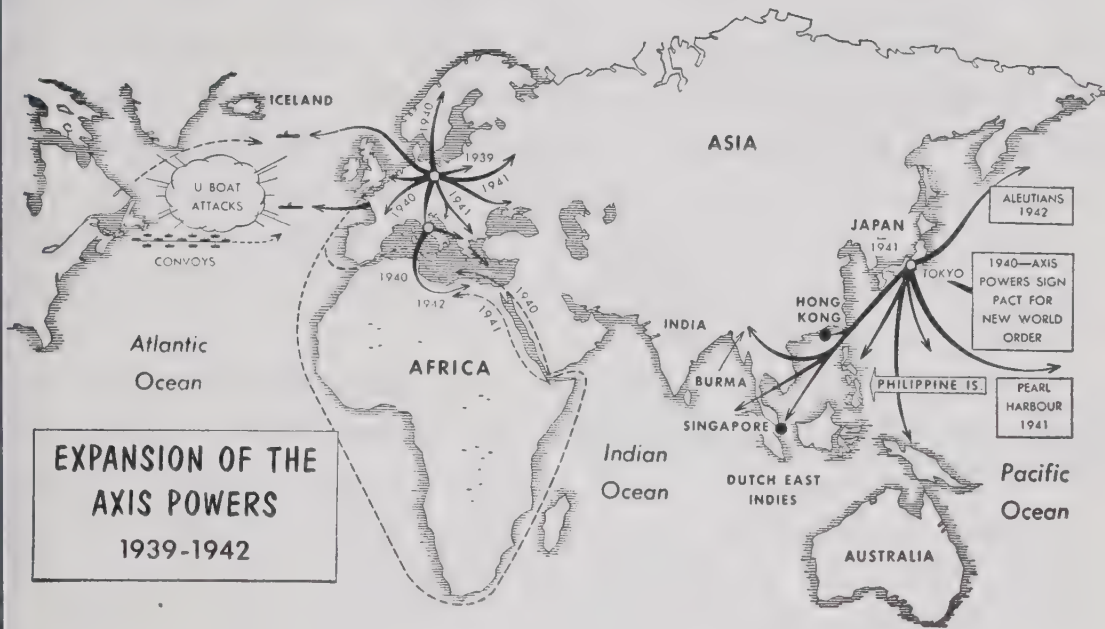
NOTE: During the air raids, an immense quantity of tea was consumed by the British people. Tea helped in great measure to steady the nerves and keep up the morale of both civilians and troops.



During all these months, and indeed all through the years of conflict, the war at sea went on. Grim, often silent, but never-ending, everything depended on it. Britain had to have food and supplies for her factories, and she had to be able to send her forces wherever they were needed. Without control of the sea, the Commonwealth would be strangled. In the First World War the battle against the submarine was a desperate struggle, but in 1940 the situation looked far worse. Germany now had the whole coast of Norway and France for her submarine nests. Her aeroplanes could bomb British ports and shipping all around the British Isles. Moreover Eire refused to allow her important ports in Southern Ireland to be used, since she was determined to stay neutral, and this was a heavy blow. How the ocean war could be won in these conditions was hard to see, and yet it was. The most gruelling struggle was in the North Atlantic and the Battle of the North Atlantic went on for months behind a curtain of secrecy, for the enemy must not be allowed to know what was happening.

German submarines were far larger than in the First World War. By 1942 they were travelling thousands of miles and sinking ships off the coast of the United States and in the St. Lawrence. To submarines were added aeroplanes which also attacked ships far out at sea. But the ways of combatting these things had also improved. Naval vessels now carried aeroplanes, there were aircraft carriers, and above all radar, a 'top-secret' invention of the war, made the finding of submarines easier. Ships travelled together in convoys as they had in the First World War, but the submarines also began hunting in packs, sometimes following convoys for days and rushing in like wolves where they could find an opening. In 1942 the Germans destroyed over 12 million tons of shipping—a terrible loss, but by the next year, with the United States in the war, new ships were being built fast enough to make up this loss, and the battle of the convoys was being won.

In this unceasing struggle at sea a vast network of men, ships, and scientific equipment was thrown across and around the oceans of the world. From the giant battleships with their 16-inch guns down to the little trawlers and minesweepers and the freighters faithfully keeping their convoy lines in spite of submarines and bombers—all were members of one great team, and none deserved more credit than the thousands of unknown men in the little



ships who day after day and night after night faced the cruel sea with unflinching courage.

In 1941, the war spread round the world. It became a global war. Germany and her allies made three tremendous thrusts in this year. The first was into the Balkans and Mediterranean region. Italy, which had joined Germany when France was falling, started this by invading Greece. When the campaign went badly, Hitler decided to throw his own troops in. Romania and Bulgaria made treaties with him, and by May he had overrun Yugoslavia and Greece and his airborne troops had even conquered the island of Crete. This gave him the whole of the Balkans though he never did crush out resistance in the mountains of

Yugoslavia and Greece. Sixty thousand Commonwealth troops, mostly from Australia and New Zealand, helped in the defence of Greece and Crete, but the German drive was too strong. At the same time Rommel, one of Hitler's best generals, was sent to North Africa with his famous 'Afrika Korps' and by May he was knocking at the borders of Egypt but he never quite got through.

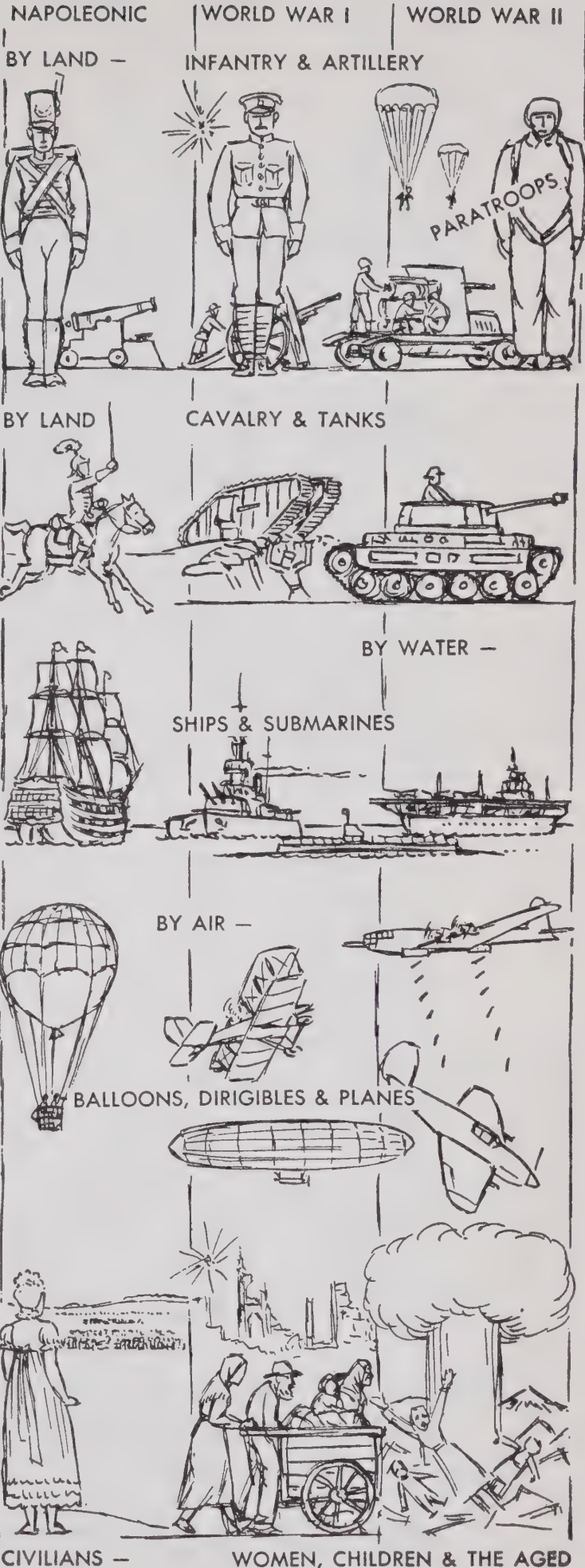
Hitler's second great thrust in 1941 was his invasion of Russia without warning in June. Up to this time the Commonwealth had been fighting alone for a year. Now the whole character of the war was suddenly changed. Hitler's armies rapidly drove into Russia and took great areas, but they never broke the Russian forces even though they got to within a few miles of Moscow. Soon convoys of supplies were going from Britain and America up past Norway to Russia's Arctic ports of Murmansk and Archangel. Some of the bitterest sea fighting of the war took place in this Arctic convoy route.

The third thrust was on the other side of the globe. Since 1937 Japan had been invading China. After France fell she took over French Indo-China, and a few months later she joined Germany and Italy to form 'The Axis', as it came to be called. A New World Order they proclaimed was their aim. Now with Hitler deep into Russia Japan decided to gamble everything on a blitzkrieg victory. Early on Sunday morning, December 7, Japan's navy without warning launched a heavy air attack on Pearl Harbour, in the Hawaiian islands, the main Pacific naval base of the United States. The damage was tremendous. Apparently Japan thought this would frighten the United States, or make her helpless to strike back. The American people were stunned with surprise and rage. For months the great majority of the American people had shown that their sympathies lay with Britain, and the American navy had been helping American supplies to reach Britain and Russia, but many people in the United States still wished to remain neutral. With Pearl Harbour all this was changed and the United States threw herself into the war with all her vast energy and resources.

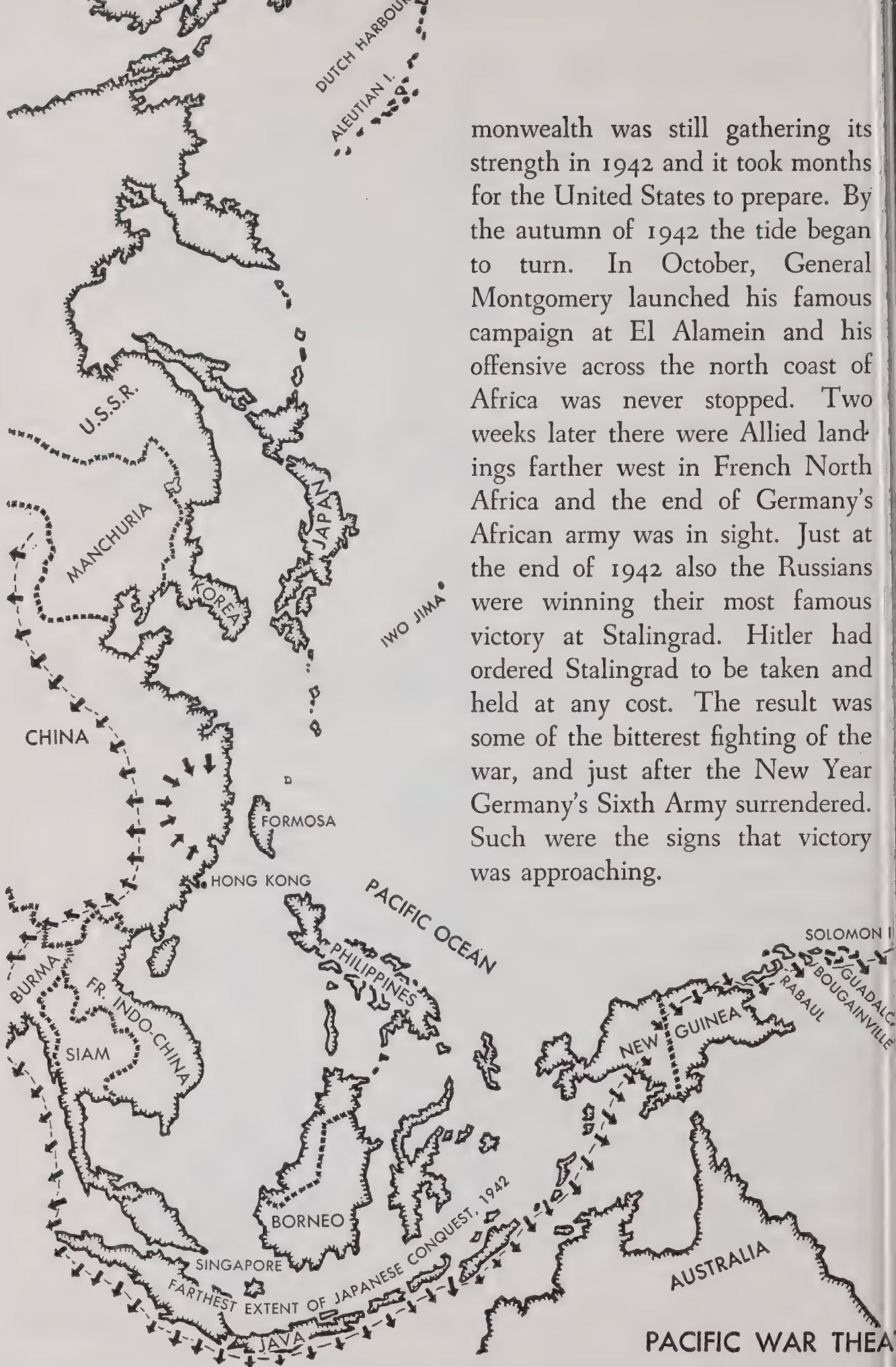
The Second World War

Thus when 1942 began the whole world was involved, and 1942 was to see the Axis powers still expanding. In Russia Hitler's armies went 1000 miles to Stalingrad on the Volga River and deep into the Caucasus with its rich oil wells. In North Africa Rommel after a see-saw war again got to El Alamein on the threshold of Egypt. In the Pacific Japan made vast conquests with her navy, air force, and specially trained troops. Hong Kong and Singapore, the great British naval base, fell; Burma was conquered with the Burma Road that had carried supplies from India to China; the Philippines, Borneo, Java, New Guinea, and scores of smaller islands were overrun as far as the Marshall Islands and the Solomon Islands, 2000 miles from Japan itself. This brought the Japanese to the very point of invading the north coast of Australia. So the Axis reached the high-water mark of its power.

Even before 1942 ended, however, signs of Axis defeat were appearing. The Com-



WOMEN, CHILDREN & THE AGED



monwealth was still gathering its strength in 1942 and it took months for the United States to prepare. By the autumn of 1942 the tide began to turn. In October, General Montgomery launched his famous campaign at El Alamein and his offensive across the north coast of Africa was never stopped. Two weeks later there were Allied landings farther west in French North Africa and the end of Germany's African army was in sight. Just at the end of 1942 also the Russians were winning their most famous victory at Stalingrad. Hitler had ordered Stalingrad to be taken and held at any cost. The result was some of the bitterest fighting of the war, and just after the New Year Germany's Sixth Army surrendered. Such were the signs that victory was approaching.

In the next two years the Axis went down to a series of smashing defeats. In May of 1943 the Axis armies in North Africa surrendered. By summer Sicily was invaded, Mussolini fell from power, and in the autumn the campaign for Italy was begun. In the spring of 1943 the Russian armies also began their long series of victories that was to bring them two years later into Berlin. Before 1943 was ended the British had launched their campaign in Burma, and the American offensive to capture the Pacific Islands had begun. This 'island-hopping' campaign was to bring the Allied forces finally to Japan itself.

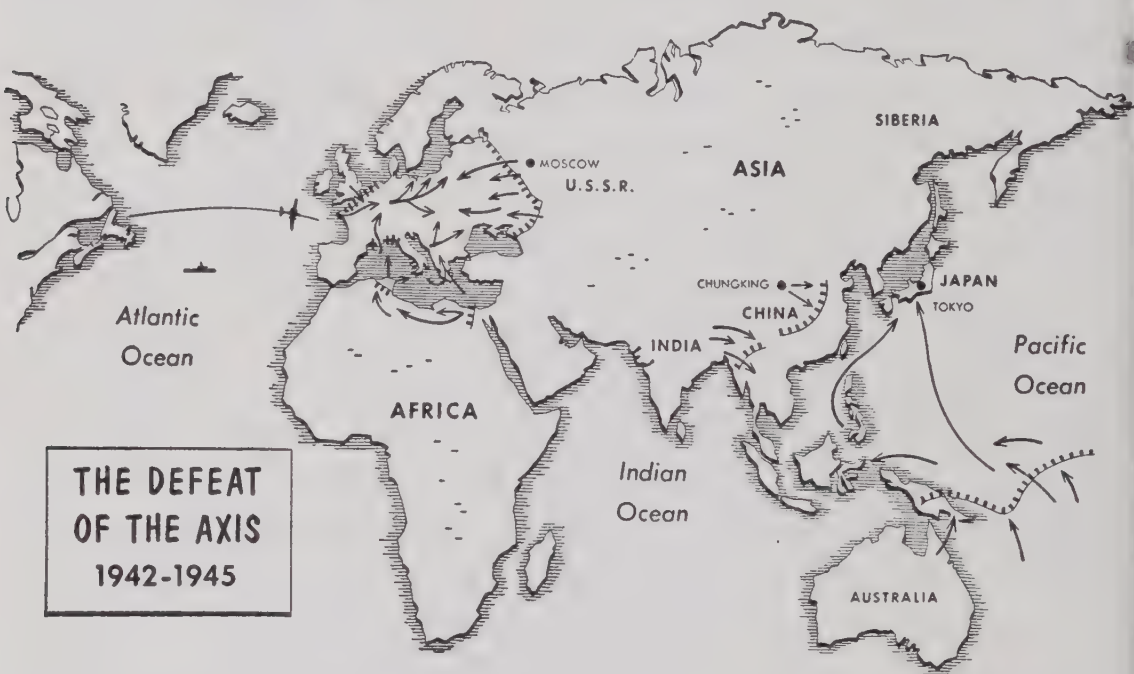
The invasion of northern Europe was now approaching. Long before 1944 plans had been in the making. By the spring of that year they were nearing completion. The channel which Napoleon and Hitler had never been able to cross was now to carry Allied armies into France, Belgium, and Holland. For months a bombing offensive had been carried on from Britain, and Britain itself had become like a great launching stage full of men, arms, and supplies ready for the assault. For months, too, help had been flown across to those who were organizing resistance behind the German lines. A Free French army had also been organized under General De Gaulle in North Africa.

At last the long-awaited 'D-Day' came, June 6, 1944, and within a few hours a landing had taken place on the Normandy coast without a hitch. The Germans had not expected it at that point, and for a time Hitler apparently thought it was not the real invasion at all. Men and materials poured in. Two artificial harbours constructed beforehand with great secrecy—something never done before—were towed across the channel. In twenty-four hours a quarter of a million men were landed on the French coast in the greatest land-sea operation in history and with a perfect display of teamwork. The final chapter of Germany's defeat was begun.

Months of hard fighting were still ahead, but Germany now found that the speed and power of the blitzkrieg which she used in 1940 were turned against her. By the end of 1944, with the

Russians advancing from the East and the Allied armies from the West, Germany was once more forced back within her own borders. Still the pressure continued and on May 5, 1945, the German armies surrendered unconditionally. Hitler, it seems, had committed suicide in an underground shelter in Berlin. His mad struggle for world power had ended after bringing destruction and misery to millions of people.

By this time the Allies were closing in on Japan with the United States bearing the brunt of the attack. Island after island fell with desperate fighting till Japan itself was in bombing range.



On August 5, the world read with astonishment that an 'atomic' bomb had been dropped on Hiroshima with awful destruction. Japanese leaders declared they would still go on, but three days later another atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki, and two days later Japan offered to surrender unconditionally. Russia had declared war on Japan and invaded Manchuria just a week earlier. The final surrender was signed on board the U.S. battleship *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay.

So the fighting ended in this Second World War in which millions of men, and indeed women and children, had been in-

volved. The guns and bombs had ceased, but behind them they left all the problems of making peace in the midst of a world suffering from years of bitter conflict and destruction.

4. The Commonwealth in the War

In so brief a sketch it has been impossible to mention any but the greatest events. Hundreds of volumes have already been written about this global war and hundreds more will be written. Every country down to the smallest—like Norway, Holland, Belgium, and Greece—had its story of courage and effort, and some of the pinpoints on the map shone like gems of heroism, like little Malta which for months stood alone in the centre of the Mediterranean against a rain of bombs. Its whole people was awarded the George Cross for heroism at the end of the war. Nor would it be fair, or even possible, to tell which countries did the most. The Axis was defeated by the combined efforts of many nations with a display of global teamwork never before equalled. The freedom-loving nations should never forget this, for they need co-operation always, and often this seems harder to get in peace than in war. This book is, however, about the nations of the Commonwealth, and so it is right that we should here notice specially some of the things which they did.

The Commonwealth nations made three outstanding contributions to victory, and in doing so they showed a great spirit of teamwork among themselves. First there was their contribution on the fighting fronts around the world—land, sea, and air. Already we have mentioned many illustrations of this. Britain with her large population, her great navy and merchant marine, and her Air Force which expanded enormously during the war, made the greatest contribution. Her ships, men and planes were on every fighting front and at many strategic points, such as Gibraltar,

THE COMMONWEALTH WAR EFFORT.

N.W. EUROPE

CHURCHILL

1 THE SIEGE OF BRITAIN

CIVILIAN DEFENCE

R.N.

BRIT. ARMY & CAN. ARMY

OCCUPIED BY GERMANY

TEDDER

R.A.F. & COMMONWEALTH VOLUNTEERS IN R.A.F

2. THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC

N. ATLANTIC CONVOY
R.N. & R.C.N.

MUNITIONS,
MEN & FOOD

MUNITIONS
TO U.S.S.R.

HALIFAX

DUNKIRK
DIEPE

3 COMMONWEALTH AIR TRAINING PLAN

KING

4. D-DAY

BRITISH & CANADIAN ARMIES
WITH AMERICAN ALLIES
INVADE
EUROPE

ROYAL NAVY
AND R.C.N.
ASSIST

GERMANY

HOLLAND

BELGIUM

R.A.F.
R.C.A.F.

ENGLISH CHANNEL

CAN.
BRITISH

5. INVASION OF GERMANY

MONTGOMERY

Malta, and the Suez Canal. In the war at sea her contributions, including her navy and merchant marine, were greater than those of any other nation. Only in the sea-war against Japan did she take second place to the United States. Britain's greatest land campaigns were in Europe, North Africa, and Burma. In the air the R.A.F. showed its quality from the beginning, and especially in the Battle of Britain. As it grew rapidly in numbers, both in bombers and fighting planes, it became one of the great reasons for Germany's defeat.

Australia and New Zealand in proportion to their populations made a great fighting contribution. Australia had her own small but efficient navy, which from the beginning played an important part in the Pacific. Each had its Air Force while thousands of Australians and New Zealanders were also in the R.A.F. Yet their armies were their major contribution and they fought in many campaigns. In Greece and Crete and at the battle of El Alamein in 1942 they played an outstanding part. When Japan was thrusting into the South Pacific, they were called nearer

THE COMMONWEALTH WAR EFFORT. MEDITERRANEAN & S.E. ASIA

home. In Malaya, Java, and Timor they fought delaying actions, and in New Guinea they began to roll the Japanese back in a jungle campaign which was one of the worst in the entire war.

In South Africa, far from the main scenes of action, there were divided feelings especially at the beginning of the war. The opposition parties felt that South Africa need take no active part, but the Prime Minister, General Smuts, who had fought against Britain in the Boer War, and later had become one of the great founders of the Commonwealth, felt that the cause of the freedom-loving nations must be upheld. Through his leadership South Africa made an important contribution, especially in guarding the south end of Africa and aiding in forwarding men and supplies, when the Mediterranean route was cut off. This made possible, for example, Britain's first campaign in North Africa. South African troops also fought in the campaign which cleared Abyssinia and with the Eighth Army in North Africa and Italy, and thousands of South African volunteers were to be found in all branches of the British services.



MONTGOMERY

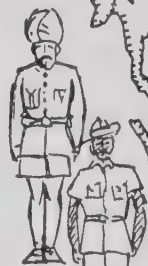
BRITISH
S. AFRICAN
AUSTRALIAN
& N ZEALAND
ARMIES

1 NORTH AFRICAN THEATRE



SMUTS

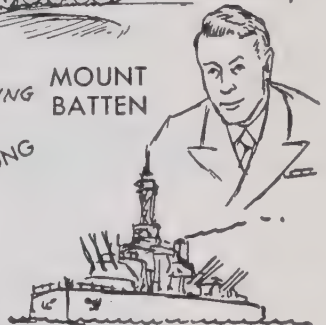
2. SOUTHEAST ASIA



INDIAN
AFRICAN
& BRITISH
ARMIES



C.R.N.
&
R.A.N.



MOUNT
BATTEN

PACIFIC OCEAN

AUSTRALIAN &
NEW ZEALAND
ARMIES



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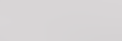


CURTIN

3. INVASION OF SICILY & ITALY



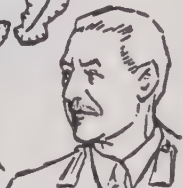
BRITISH
CANADIAN
INDIAN / NEW
ZEALAND & AUSTRALIAN ARMIES



NORTH AFRICA



R.A.F.
MALTA



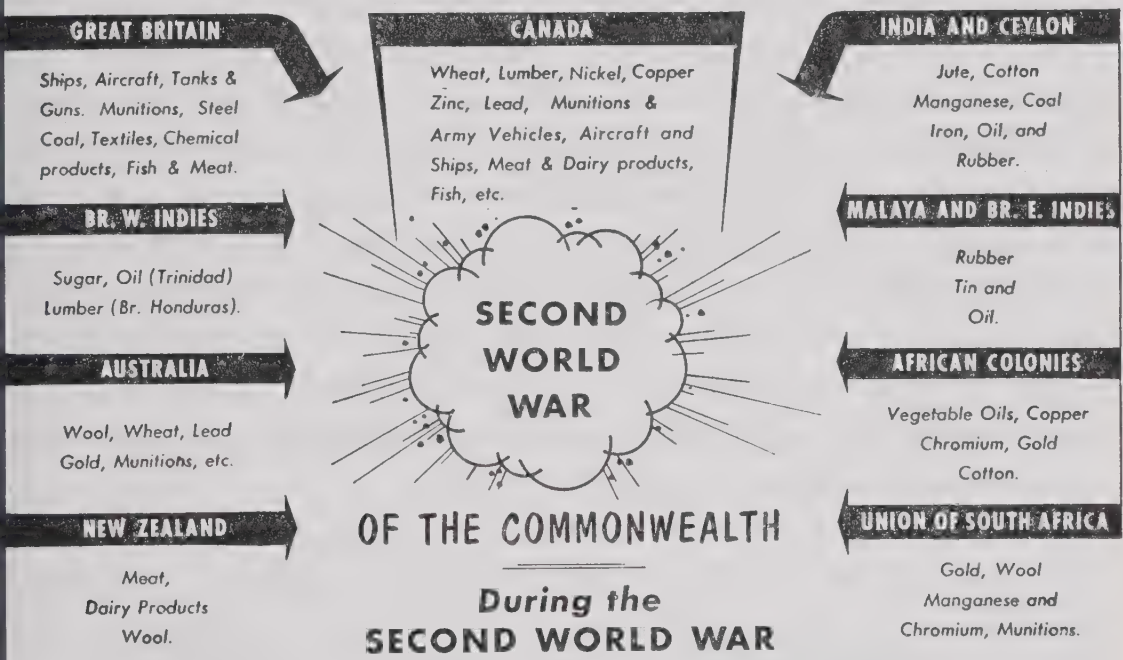
ALEXANDER,

In India, also, there was difference of opinion. This is not surprising as India had not yet gained her place as an independent nation in the Commonwealth, and a hard political struggle was going on. Nevertheless, India's contributions on the fighting fronts were very great. Her small but efficient navy quickly trebled in size, while her merchant seamen were a quarter of the total in the Commonwealth and Empire. The Indian army grew very rapidly and after a year numbered some 600,000. It served on many fronts from North Africa, Italy, and the Middle East through to Burma and the South Pacific, and in the closing years of the war India became a base for the British operations against Japan.

Canada started almost unarmed, but during the war she became the third largest naval power and the fourth largest air power of the United Nations. In the Battle of the North Atlantic, even as a junior partner, she played a vital part, with her destroyers, merchant marine, corvettes, and coastal air patrols. Her naval vessels operated also in the Caribbean, the Mediterranean, and the waters around Britain. Halifax, as in other wars, became one of the world's great naval bases. Newfoundland, not yet a part of Canada, also made a very great contribution in the war at sea. No sailors knew the North Atlantic and its perils better than the men from Newfoundland. In the air Canada's contributions were remarkable for their variety. Canadian airmen fought on widely scattered fronts from the Tropics to the Arctic circle. Canada's Air Force grew rapidly: by the spring of 1942 seventeen R.C.A.F. squadrons were in action overseas. Canada also had a large share in two of the great airways developed by the war, the one across the North Atlantic, which sent hundreds of bombers and other supplies to Britain, the other from Edmonton via Alaska, which sent supplies to Russia. Perhaps Canada's greatest contribution to the air war was the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan. By 1942 almost one hundred schools and air fields were in operation, and by D-Day over 100,000 men from all parts of the Commonwealth and Empire had been trained in Canadian skies.

Canadian soldiers also served at widely scattered points, such as Iceland, the West Indies and Hong Kong, but the bulk of Canada's army was sent to Britain whose defence was essential to victory. After many months of training and waiting, during which it shared in the raid on Dieppe, the Canadian First Division was sent to Sicily, and from there went to the mainland and on through the Italian campaign. After D-Day Canadians fought in Northern France in the bitter struggle at Caen, and then went eastwards through the fighting for the channel ports and northern Belgium

SOME OF THE CHIEF WAR SUPPLIERS



into Holland. Canadians had a special part in the liberation of Holland, and a warm friendship was formed with the Dutch people whose Queen Juliana, then the Crown princess, had stayed in Canada with her children during the war.

The second great contribution of the Commonwealth nations was in materials. This was a war, as never before, of materials of all kinds, gathered from all corners of the world: food, raw materials such as iron, oil, rubber and nickel, manufactured products of every possible variety, and scientific equipment of the latest

type worked out in the world's finest laboratories. Britain among the Commonwealth countries played the largest part in manufacturing and in transporting across the world's oceans. In accomplishing this she found that she had to make tremendous changes in her ways of doing things. By closing unnecessary factories and carefully regulating supplies, production was enormously increased. At the same time she also increased her food production. At the beginning of the war she was producing only one-third of her food. By 1942 she was producing half. British scientists also showed that they were among the world's best. Near the beginning of the war they found a solution for Germany's deadly magnetic mine, and this is only one illustration of their work.

In manufactured goods India, Australia, and Canada were the great contributors after Britain. Of these Canada was the most important, but India's and Australia's production also developed rapidly. One of India's contributions was 700,000,000 sandbags sent in 1941 to help protect English buildings against bombing. Canada's industrial development during the war was very great and she came out of the conflict an important industrial nation. Tanks, aeroplanes, munitions, ships and hundreds of other articles were turned out of her factories. Her scientists also made an important contribution, in radar for instance.

These enormous Commonwealth contributions in materials were made possible by careful planning and the closest co-operation. The Commonwealth governments set up boards to regulate transportation and supplies of all kinds, and after the United States entered the war these plans were combined with those of the United States. So far as Canada was concerned this co-operation began earlier. Several months before Pearl Harbour, Canada and the United States in the Hyde Park Agreement decided to co-operate in producing manufactures and so Canada became an important link between the United States and the Commonwealth war effort.

The third great contribution of the Commonwealth countries was in their determination to defend the ideals of freedom. In the

long run, men are controlled by ideas not machines, and even wars are won more by ideas than bullets. For over a year after the fall of France, the Commonwealth stood alone in the face of overwhelming odds, held together not by force, but by a determination not to be overrun by dictators and aggressors. This example inspired the freedom-loving nations of the world and the Commonwealth became a rallying point. The signal ...—, V for victory, sent out from Britain encouraged the people in the conquered countries in the darkest hours of the war. The Commonwealth countries showed too that democracy was not weak and inefficient as Hitler had boasted it was. They realized that their practice of democracy was not perfect. Democracy is an ideal which perhaps can never be perfectly realized. But they did maintain their democratic systems even in the midst of war, and they proved that democratic peoples could organize themselves in the face of crisis. In this struggle for freedom Britain with her long story of free government had a special place, but she could never have stood alone had the Commonwealth nations overseas deserted her, as they could have done if they had wished. They too, therefore, had their own share in rallying the free world for the final victory, and this was the Commonwealth's greatest contribution.

5. The Effects of the War on the Commonwealth

Wars have had a great effect on the Empire and Commonwealth, and none more than the Second World War. When the Peace Conference met after the First World War, Canada and the other Dominions had to demand a place in it. When the San Francisco Conference met in 1945 to establish the United Nations Organization, there was no question of their position. Everyone recognized that they were self-governing nations, and Canada was often described as a 'Middle Power'

ranking next in importance to the few great powers. The war had given the world a new understanding of the nature of the Commonwealth as a family of free nations.

This new understanding was nowhere more important than in the United States where there had always been much bitter criticism of Britain and the British Empire. Now it was seen that Britain and the Commonwealth were among the great defences of world freedom, and that the United States and the Commonwealth must co-operate if the world was not to be overrun by aggressors like Hitler's Germany. This change in the relations of the United States and the Commonwealth was of the greatest importance to Canada, since Canada wanted both to remain in the Commonwealth and to have friendship with the United States, and there was now no question that this was possible. Canada had herself also made a very large contribution to this new understanding between the United States and Britain. Her own growth to nationhood was an example to the United States of freedom in the Commonwealth, and during the war her close partnership with both the United States and Britain helped greatly in their co-operation.

Another effect of the war on the Commonwealth was in its membership. Two countries chose to withdraw. The first was Eire which, at the beginning of the war, had determined to show her independence by remaining neutral. The long and unhappy story of English-Irish relations made this understandable, though many Irishmen regretted that Eire should not play a part in the struggle against Hitler. The second was Burma. At the end of the war when Burma's independence was recognized her government chose to remain outside the Commonwealth. Many felt that her decision was hasty, but in both cases the freedom to choose showed again that the Commonwealth was held together not by force, but by the wishes of its members.

After the war three others—India, Pakistan and Ceylon—chose at the time that their independence was recognized to remain in

the Commonwealth. This remarkable example proved again that the Empire was a laboratory of free government, and that countries could grow out of it into full nationhood. With these decisions of India, Pakistan and Ceylon the Commonwealth also became a great Asiatic power and an important link between East and West in a world where such links were all too few. Free government continued to grow in other parts of the Empire also, as in the British West Indies, and in Africa where Rhodesia was nearing the position of full Commonwealth membership.

6. Post - War Britain

In 1945, to the great surprise of many, Prime Minister Churchill and his supporters were defeated in a general election and the Labour Party came to power. Five years later another general election was to make Churchill Prime Minister again, but for the time being he was the leader of 'His Majesty's Loyal Opposition'. That the great war leader, who more than anyone else had inspired his countrymen in their darkest hour, should be defeated in this way was hard for people, especially in non-British countries, to understand. Such a thing could not have happened in a dictatorship, but it proved again that a democracy can have peaceful changes which would be impossible in other countries without a revolution.

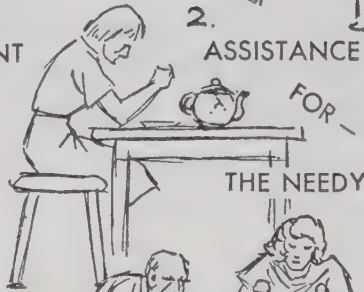
These changes in government were one of the signs of serious problems which were facing Britain after the war. Again she had been on the winning side, but the Second World War like the First had left her with very heavy burdens. Again she had lost markets for her manufactured goods which she would find it hard to recover. Other countries had been developing their own industries. She had also spent most of her investments abroad to buy food and materials during the war. She had lost the income

SOCIAL SERVICES IN BRITAIN TODAY

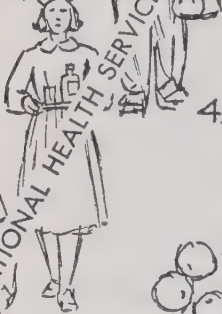
1. INSURANCE



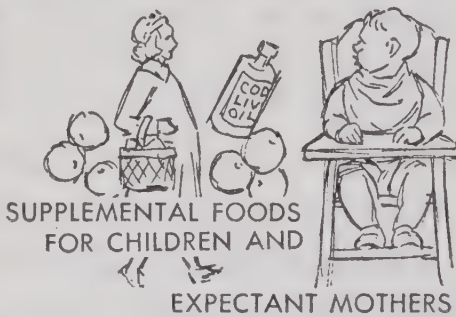
2. ASSISTANCE



3. FREE — MEDICAL HOSPITAL & DENTAL CARE (OUT OF TAXES)



4. WELFARE FOODS SERVICE



5.



FAMILY ALLOWANCES



6.

TOWN & COUNTRY PLANNING

7. YOUTH SERVICE



from these investments and was in debt. She had, moreover, the damages of the war to repair, and many of her factories and mines needed modern and new machinery if she was to compete in the markets of the world.

The result of these conditions was that, no matter what party was in power, some of the rationing and war-time controls had to be continued. This was hard, after all that the people had gone through, but the British people have shown that they are willing to discipline themselves in order to face their problems.

The mass of people in Britain were not content, however, to face only problems left by the war. They wanted also to improve their social services so that people would be still more protected against such things as unemployment, ill health and lack of education. Before the war, as we have already seen, considerable progress had been made in social services, but during the war a report was issued by a government commission outlining much more complete plans. This Beveridge Report, as it was called after Lord Beveridge the chairman of the commission, was accepted

by the government as a basis of action, and it also became famous in other countries where it was carefully studied.

As a result of these plans the government after the war brought in a series of acts which aimed to give Britain one of the best systems of social services in the world. The most important of these acts was the National Insurance Act of 1948, which in general applies to everyone over school age. The individual makes contributions to his insurance by buying stamps which he puts on a card. The government also adds to this. From this insurance there are benefits for sickness, unemployment, maternity expenses, support of widows, pensions, and other things. Another act, the National Assistance Act, provides assistance for the needy, infirm, or crippled. The National Health Service was also established in 1948. About 95 per cent of the population come under it. Medical, dental and hospital services are provided for the individual free of charge, which means, of course, that the scheme is supported by taxation. There are also various other acts and services: such as the Family Allowances Act; the Welfare Foods Service to provide special foods like orange juice and cod liver oil to children and expectant mothers; Town and Country Planning Acts to encourage the best use of land, and the wise planning of towns; and the Youth Service, to assist in providing recreation and training in citizenship. These acts and services aim wherever possible to assist and encourage voluntary organizations, as it is unwise to have the government doing everything.

Britain's social services have raised the standards of living for the great mass of the people, and did so indeed during the war in spite of shortages in many things. All the political parties agree that there must be a system of social services; the difference between the parties comes over the question as to how far these social services should go. The Labour Party would go farther than the Conservatives, and also would go farther in the direction of socialism which would mean bringing all the great industries of the country, like the steel industry, under the ownership and control of the government. Other countries, of course, have these

same problems as to how far the government should go in providing social services and in controlling the economic life, but the question is specially difficult in Britain because of her burden of taxation and her declining wealth. The cost of social services must come out of the nation's income through taxation, and at the same time all the other costs of government and defence must also be paid. How high can taxes go, and how shall the nation's income be spent? These are among the most important questions dividing the parties and the people.

In 1700 Britain had about seven million people. In 1950 she had over fifty million. Can these islands, rich and beautiful though they are, continue to support so great a population, and can Britain continue to be one of the world's great powers? To do so she must keep up her world trade and be able to sell to other nations. Certainly the world cannot afford to lose the influence of Britain with her love of freedom and her long tradition of parliamentary government. The collapse of Britain would be calamity to all freedom-loving nations.

In spite of her difficulties Britain has many sources of strength. Her island position close to Europe is still a strategic one; she has skilled leaders and a people who are willing to face their problems with democratic discussion. Debates may be hard and even bitter, but there is a deep feeling of unity in the country.

In 1951 the Festival of Britain was held, and this showed the spirit of the British people. In 1851 a great exhibition was held in Crystal Palace, an enormous glass building put up in London, to show the progress of British manufactures. This was the first of the modern World Fairs. But the 1951 Festival was different even though it showed many of the products of British industry. Its chief purpose was to tell the story of Britain's contributions to civilization, and in addition to a great exhibition in London there were festivals and exhibitions all over the country, with much music and painting and many plans to beautify town and country. So the Festival was planned as a token of thanksgiving for Britain's past and a testimony of faith in her future.

In 1952 the unity of the British people, and also the meaning of the Commonwealth was shown by another event, the coming to the throne of Queen Elizabeth II. The death of her father George VI was mourned not only in the Commonwealth but in many other countries, for he had shown himself to be a wise and good man with a perfect understanding of what the democratic monarch should be. The accession of a beautiful young queen with the name of Elizabeth was taken as a good omen, and her coming to the throne was proclaimed gladly in all her vast realms. She was proclaimed separately in each Commonwealth country, and in whatever form the government of the country wished, for she is the head of each Commonwealth country independently. Four of these countries have colonies or dependencies of their own, Australia five, New Zealand two, South Africa one, and the United Kingdom fifty-seven of all sizes from little Pitcairn Island with its two square miles and one hundred and twenty people. So the accession of the queen showed again the extent of the Commonwealth and the bonds not of force but of co-operation and goodwill, which hold it together.



Learn by Doing

1. A tariff is a duty which must be paid on goods being imported into a country. Have a free class discussion as to the advantages and disadvantages of tariffs. (1)
2. Committees may report briefly on the conquests of Japan, Italy and Germany which led to the Second World War. (2)
3. Make three maps of Europe using asbestos fibre—the first of pre-war Europe, the second showing the Axis at the height of its power, and the third of Europe today. Colour them and place flags on them to show the areas controlled by various countries. (3)
4. Carry on an imaginary radio interview with Prime Minister Churchill just after the British army returned from Dunkirk. (3)
5. Three committees may report on the three great thrusts made by Germany and her allies in 1941. The committees should use the necessary maps when making their reports. (3)
6. Make a map of the world from cardboard and place the flags of the various nations fighting in the war over the area which they controlled. This may be built up to represent the progress of the war. (3)
7. Have two committees report on the advantages and disadvantages of socialism. (6)

Facts to Know

1. (a) Give reasons why people were hungry during the depression when food was also going to waste.
(b) How did tariffs affect this problem? (1)
2. Why was Hitler able to get the people of Germany to follow him? (2)
3. How was Britain able to get her army back to Britain from the beaches of Dunkirk? (3)
4. Why was the submarine menace so serious in 1940? How did Britain meet this challenge? (3)

5. Why was Japan's attack on Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, very significant? (3)
6. (a) List the areas conquered by the Axis to the end of 1942.
(b) List in order the areas won back by the allies after 1943. (3)
7. What effect had the atomic bomb on the war with Japan? (3)
8. Name three great contributions of the Commonwealth during the Second World War. (4)
9. Write a paragraph pointing out events which took place after the war which indicated that the countries of the Commonwealth had the right to make their own choices. (5)

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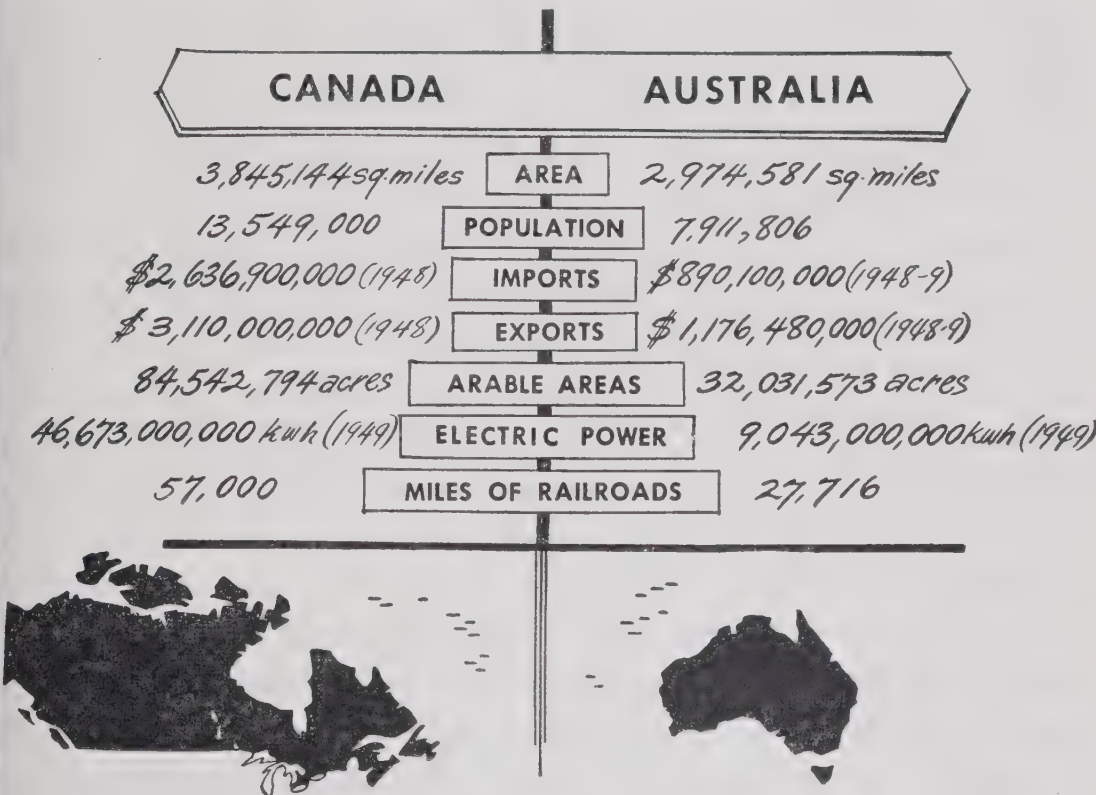
UNIT TWELVE

COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES OF THE PACIFIC

- 1. Australia's Story*
- 2. Australia Today*
- 3. New Zealand's Story*
- 4. New Zealand Today*
- 5. The Pacific Nations Enter World Affairs*

We have looked at the Commonwealth in general, and paid particular attention to Britain, the parent country. But the other Commonwealth countries need a 'close-up' too, so let us begin with Australia and New Zealand. Far off in the Pacific, and with strange plants, birds and animals like the eucalyptus, the lyre-bird, and the kangaroo, Australia especially seems very unlike Canada. Yet Australians and New Zealanders are in some ways more like Canadians than are the people of Britain. Like Canadians, they dwell in 'new' countries far from Europe, and in these new lands they too have found rich resources and plenty of room to grow. They have developed their countries quickly, and in many ways their life shows a feeling of space and freedom more like life in Canada than life in the crowded and ancient island of Britain.

Canada, Australia, and New Zealand have much in common also in their histories. In each we can trace a colourful story of pioneers conquering an unknown land. Australia's story, in particular, resembles Canada's. In Australia, too, early settlers founded colonies on the edges of a vast land mass, and then spread inward to join at last in a continent-wide union, very much like Canada's



Confederation. Instead of cold, the builders of Australia faced heat. Instead of rocky barrens and lofty mountains blocking their way across the continent, they met waterless desert. In each of the three countries, however, there developed finally out of the pioneer settlements, a new democratic nation.

1. Australia's Story

(a) Settling the Coasts. The story of Australia only really begins in 1788 with the arrival of the First

Fleet at Sydney, New South Wales. We have already described this in Unit Nine. Before that time the great island continent was inhabited only by small bands of roaming bushmen, or 'blackfellows'. These dark-skinned, curly-headed natives (of a different race from the Negroes of Africa) were so primitive that they wore no clothes and lived only by hunting small game, snakes and lizards. They did not take readily to the white man's civilization, but they were too weak to bar his way. Today their few descendants live in the hot Northern Territory, or in the dry northwestern interior where the barren land is unsuitable for development, and the sunlit wilderness remains unchanged.

Because of good soil and rainfall, the coastal regions, unlike the interior, proved suitable for white settlement, and settlers gradually spread out from Sydney along the eastern coast. This took some time, however, for you will remember that the first colonists of Australia were prisoners transported from Britain, and this discouraged ordinary immigrants from coming to what they felt was a 'land of convicts'. But in 1793 the first shipload of free settlers arrived, and more followed.

One of these early free settlers, Captain John MacArthur, did much to shape the whole future of Australia. At his homestead near Sydney he experimented with sheep-raising until he produced a Merino type of sheep that would flourish in Australia. Fine Merino wool was in great demand in Europe. Thanks to MacArthur, far-off Australia could now produce a valuable crop to sell in European markets, and settlers could hope to make a good

living in this land half way round the world. As a result, more and more free immigrants began to arrive in New South Wales. Settlement spread inland, for the grassy interior districts were well suited to sheep grazing even though they could not raise



MERINO SHEEP

many other kinds of crops. By the 1830's New South Wales was a thriving colony.

Meanwhile, settlement had begun on other coasts. On the other side of the continent, the colony of Western Australia was founded on the fertile banks of the Swan River. Off the south coast the beautiful island of Tasmania, first called Van Diemen's Land, was opened up as a new convict settlement. Strangely enough, Canada had contacts with distant Van Diemen's Land, for after the rebellions of 1837 in Upper and Lower Canada some followers of Mackenzie and Papineau were transported there as prisoners. At the time the governor of Van Diemen's Land was Sir John Franklin, the famous Arctic explorer, who was later to perish in the Canadian North, searching for the North West Passage.

Free settlers slowly replaced convicts in Tasmania, and farms and orchards stretched through its well-watered valleys. Then on the southern coast of the Australian mainland two new colonies were founded: Victoria in 1835 and South Australia in 1836. Victoria was first settled by people from New South Wales and Tasmania, but its fertile lands soon gained many immigrants direct from Britain. South Australia, further to the west up the great inward curve of the coastline, grew more slowly. Yet it grew steadily, especially because of the planned immigration programme of the South Australia Association in London. This was founded by Edward Gibbon Wakefield, the great empire builder already mentioned in Unit Nine. Settlement was also working north along the eastern coast above New South Wales. Here in 1859 Queensland came into being, the last of the six colonies that would finally join together to form the modern Australian nation.

(b) Opening the Interior. The coasts had now been opened to settlement, all except the north, which was too hot for white men to colonize, and the northwest, which was too barren. And while settlement was going on, explorers were pressing deep into the vast dry heart of the continent. As the centre was approached, the discoverers faced terrible hardships of thirst and near-starvation.

In some regions there was nothing but thick spiny bush with thorns that could slash a man or horse to ribbons. In others there were endless miles of stones or sand, where there was no game to feed on, little water, and what there was, often salt. The heat was intense enough to burst one explorer's thermometer and to dry the ink on his pen before he could put it to paper. Yet after many tragic failures and heroic deaths Australia was finally crossed from south to north in 1861, and from east to west in 1873.

Later explorations uncovered easier paths in both directions, for there were some stretches of better country to be found in the deep interior, and even areas suitable for sheep raising. Thus an overland route and telegraph line to Darwin in the Northern Territory was developed, and other routes were traced across country to Western Australia. But as late as 1917, when the Trans-Australian Railway was completed, most of the traffic between the eastern and western regions went by sea around the shores of the continent.

Behind the explorers came sheep-herders and cattlemen, pushing their flocks further and further inland as new belts of grazing land were found. Here in the bush, or 'the outback' lay the Australian frontier, very different from the Canadian frontier of settlement in some ways and very like it in others. Once the forests of the coasts had been left behind, the Australian frontier was certainly not like that of wooded, early Canada; though it was somewhat similar to what was found in the cattle country of the Canadian far west. But the problems of heat and water supply were always severe in Australia, and inland 'sheep stations', or ranches as we might call them, had to be of immense size to let the flocks find enough of the thin grass to support them. On the other hand, the broad Australian frontier, like the Canadian, produced the same self-reliant spirit,



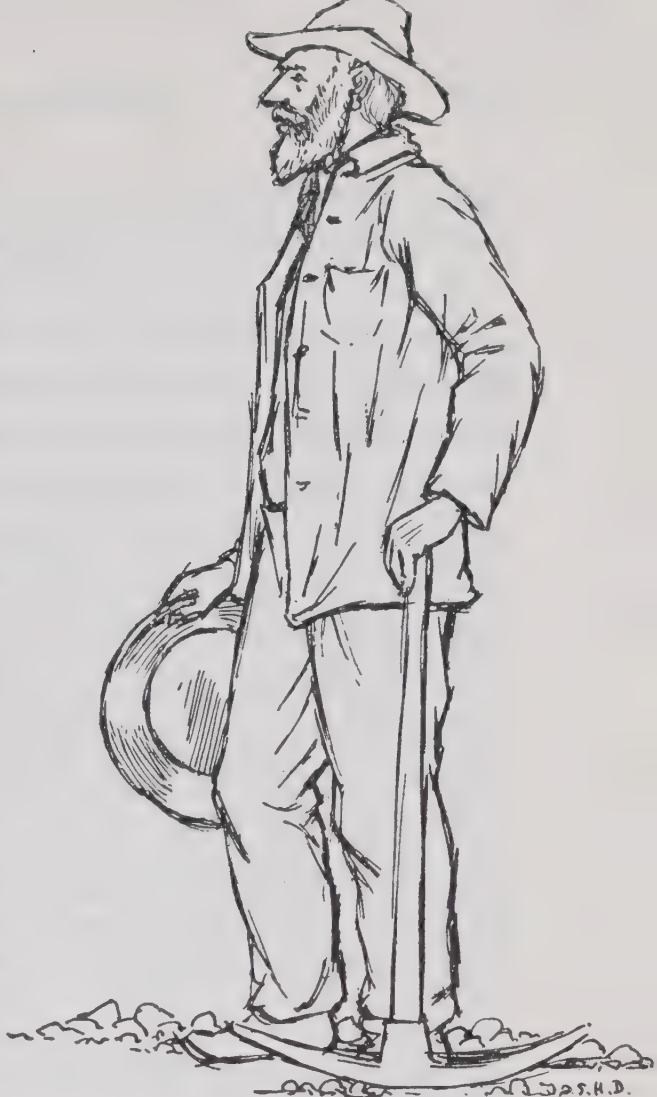
AUSTRALIAN STATES AND
DATES OF ORGANIZATION

the same easy friendliness, and the same objection to powerful men 'back east' controlling the fortunes of the pioneers in the wilderness. The frontiersman wanted to run his own affairs in his own way. Here, in short, the spirit of democracy was developing.

(c) **The Gold Rush and Democracy.** The cattle and sheep frontier was no doubt one reason for the rising democratic spirit in Australia, but Australian democracy grew particularly out of the mining frontier that sprang up almost overnight when gold was discovered in New South Wales in 1851. New and even richer strikes were made in Victoria, and gold-hungry men poured into Australia from Britain, the United

States, Canada and many other countries. The colonies boomed with the gold-rush, and their population soared. These miners, or 'diggers' (and today the common slang term for an Australian is 'digger'), were often rough, rowdy and hard. But in them burned a fierce belief in democracy and equality. Some had had to flee European lands where they had fought unsuccessfully for liberty. Many had been Chartists in Britain, and had been disappointed when the People's Charter failed. But Australia was a new land. Here they could work in their mining camps as they pleased, and bow to no man.

Gradually, however, many of the early gold fields 'panned out', and the rush ebbed away. Still many diggers stayed on to become farmers or sheep-herders, and so remained an important part of the Australian population. Above all, they left the effect of their



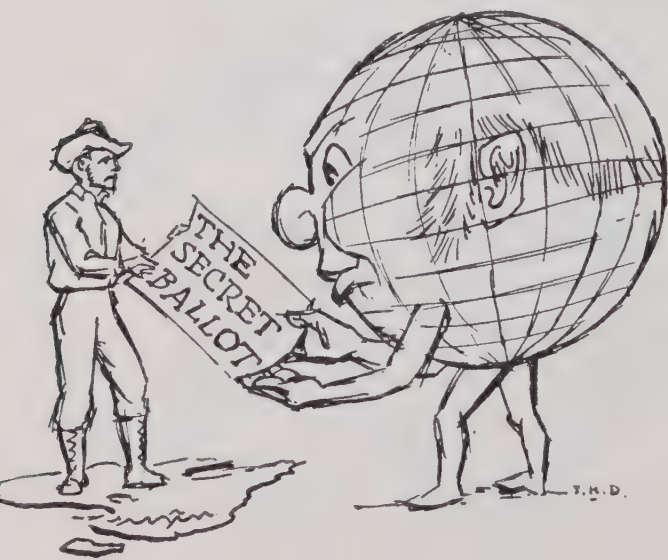
A 'DIGGER'

strong democratic spirit, and the Australian colonies soon began to lead the world in enacting democratic reforms.

In one way, Canada had a great influence on the growth of democracy in Australia. Canada won 'responsible government' in the 1840's, and when the Australian colonies were ready for it a few years later they were given it without a struggle. They soon showed, however, that they had a mind of their own, by beginning to use their new self-governing powers to bring in further reforms. In 1855, long before either Britain or Canada, South Australia gave the vote to every man (manhood suffrage) and the other Australian colonies quickly followed. The 'secret' ballot, which is what we have now, was in use in New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia by 1858, and soon became general. Indeed this plan was so successful that it was widely copied outside Australia, and for a long time people even in Canada talked of the secret ballot as the 'Australian Ballot'. So Australia led the way in the use of this democratic device, which allows everyone to vote freely, as he pleases, without the pressure or the violence or bribery that often accompanied the old open voting.

The democratic Australian colonies went through some years of depression after the end of the gold boom, but in general by the 1890's they had built a good foundation for prosperity on wool, cattle, and wheat. Fruit-growing, dairying, and sugar plantations in Queensland, also aided the eastern colonies. Western Australia in the 1890's had a new gold rush of its own when more

fields were found deep in the desert, and these fields are still important today. Thus, as the twentieth century drew near, the Australian colonies, or states, as they were now called, had all developed enough to make a general Australian union possible. The



spreading of railways had also linked the eastern states more closely together. And about this time, as we shall see, union began to look, not only possible, but necessary.

(d) **Australia Unites into a Federation.** There were two main reasons why union began to seem more necessary to the Australian states in the 1890's. One was the rise of other empires than the British. The German Empire in particular was expanding in the Pacific, and the Australian states felt that to hold their island continent they must band together to build a strong defence. The other was the fear that unless a continent-wide union was formed, with one policy for admitting immigrants, the peoples of overcrowded Asia might pour in and drown out the still small white population of Australia. The idea of a 'White Australia' had already been accepted by various states, but in earlier years there had not been a great deal of concern over admitting a trickle of Asiatic immigrants, chiefly Chinese. But now Asia was changing, and the trickle from her desperately crowded countries might become a flood.

The fear, in particular, was based on the fact that Asiatics would work for so little pay that white men could not compete with them, and were used to so little to live on that they would drive the Australian standard of living down. Hence the 'White Australia Policy' was put forward—and still stands today—as a policy of keeping up the white man's standard of living by closing the doors to cheap Asiatic labour. At the same time every effort was to be made to attract white settlers from Britain and elsewhere in order to build up Australia's population; and this still goes on too.

The White Australia question and problems of defence and trade did much to lead the Australian states into union. Finally, after several conferences, a plan was agreed upon. A union act was passed in 1900 and on January 1, 1901, the new Commonwealth of Australia came into being. The term 'Commonwealth' as used in Australia meant a union of states. It was based on a federal agreement much like that of Canada or the United

States. That is to say, some governing powers were given to the new central or Commonwealth government but others stayed with the local or state governments.

Like Canada, the Australian union kept the British parliamentary system, complete with cabinet government. Unlike Canada, Australia gave its central government only certain listed powers and left the rest to the states. In the Canadian federal union, the provinces have a limited list of powers and the central government has the rest. Australia too has in its national government a Governor-General, a Prime Minister and Cabinet, and two



Houses of Parliament. The upper house is called the Senate; but its members, unlike Canadian Senators, are elected. The lower house is called the House of Representatives; but, like Canada's House of Commons, it is the centre of politics, and carries on the main business of the people. Canadians would not find the Australian governing system much different in actual operation from their own, either at Canberra, the national capital, or in the various state capitals.

(e) **The Australian 'Social-Service State'.** The new Commonwealth government soon showed its value, and Australia began to move forward as a united nation. In one respect, in fact, it became a pioneer. It passed a number of social laws providing

old age and sickness pensions, regulating working conditions, and granting wide powers to labour unions. The result was that even before the First World War Australia was becoming known as a 'social-service state'; that is, a country in which the government performs many services for its people to aid them in sickness and encourage them in health, to give them secure employment, and to protect them from the worst effects of poverty and hard times. Today almost every country is a social-service state in greater or lesser degree, but Australia was one of the first to move in that direction, and has still gone farther than most other countries.

To some extent Australia pioneered as a social-service state because of the spirit of equality which appeared in the early settlements, and which we have already mentioned. Social reforms had gone a long way in the Australian colonies even before the Commonwealth was formed. But another reason for the Australian social-service state was the power of the Australian labour movement. Although Australia is thinly populated, most of its people live close to the coast, in or near big cities. Therefore the labouring classes could readily organize into strong groups—and even the country sheep-herders formed unions.

These labour unions were very powerful in politics, and were able to get many of their demands for social reform passed into law. Before the British Labour Party was organized, the Australian Labour Party had members in the state and Commonwealth parliaments. In 1929 a Labour government was swept into power in the Commonwealth, as a result of the discontent caused by the great world depression of that time. This Labour government lasted only two years, but in 1941 Labour came back and ruled till 1948. Among its sweeping social measures was a complete Social Security Act. The Australian Labour Party by now advocated socialism, though it did not attempt to put full socialism into practice.

Thus Australia remains a thorough-going social-service state, though not a completely socialist one. The trade unions and the Labour movement are still very strong, but they are by no means

in complete control of the politics of the country, and Australia remains strongly democratic in spirit. Australians seek state action not because they want a crutch to lean on or cannot rely on themselves, but because they think the democratic state should provide protection and a good standard of living to everyone. People differ as to how far the government should go in this direction. Hence there are different political parties, and certainly the slavish spirit of communism, which permits only one party in a country, is not to be found here.

While the social-service state was growing in Australia after 1900, the nation was busily developing its resources. The almost empty north was opened up to supply tropical products. Great copper, lead and iron mines were put into production. Australian manufacturing began to advance, thus rounding out the work of the nation. The Second World War in particular built up Australian industry, for Australia became a front-line supplier of many industrial products needed for the war in the Pacific against Japan.

As we look back on the last half century of Australian history we can see great accomplishments. Yet we can say Australia's story is hardly more than begun, because its promise is so great. In any case, we leave that story at a high point; for here is now a vigorous young nation, united, free, and growing in strength.

2. Australia Today

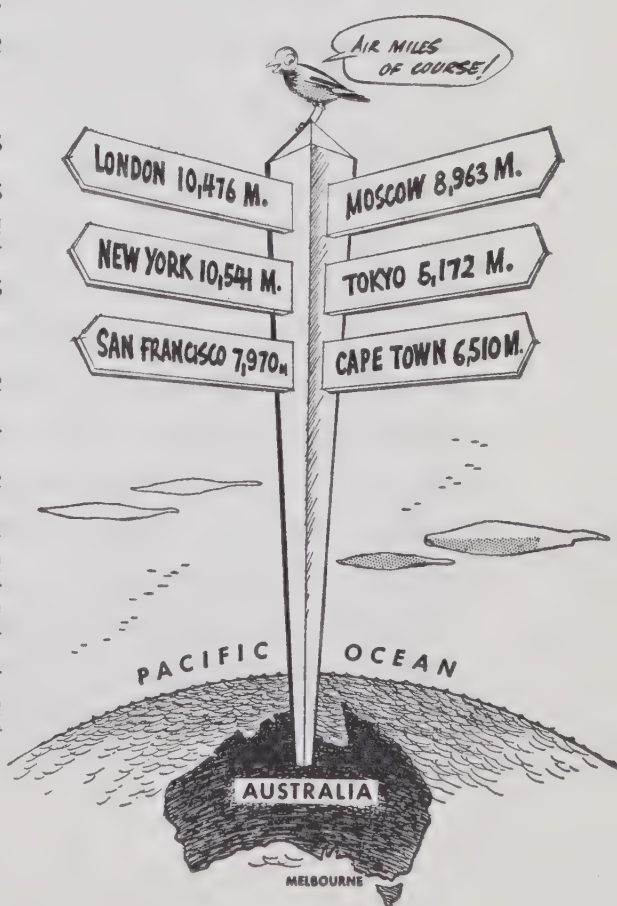
Now that we have learned something of Australia's story, let us look at the land and its people.

(a) **The Australian Setting.** One of the most striking things about Australia is its distance from its neighbours. Even its partner in the Pacific, New Zealand, is 1,200 miles away. It fears the weight of the millions of Asia, yet the coast of China is about 3,000 miles distant. It trades very largely with Britain, over ninety percent of its people come from there, and it follows British affairs

with keen interest. Yet, Britain, so close in mind, is more than three weeks journey by water. Canada and the United States, with whom Australia has become more closely connected since the Second World War, are nearly 8,000 miles away across the breadth of the Pacific. The Australian continent, indeed, is a land set off by itself, even though air travel has brought it nearer its neighbours. For long ages, however, it remained remote. Thus it is not surprising that the very forms of its plant and animal life are so different from those of the rest of the world, and supply us with many strange contrasts.

This is the land where swans are black, not white, where some of the trees shed their bark instead of their foliage, where the eucalyptus leaves hang vertical to the hot sun to avoid drying out, and where 'cherries' are found with the stone on the outside and the pulp inside. Here live the strange marsupials that are not found elsewhere; that is, animals that carry their young in pouches, of which the best known is the kangaroo, a creature described by an English writer in Australia's early days as "a monstrous animal, as tall as a grenadier, with the head of a rabbit and a tail as big as a bedpost, that goes hopping along at the rate of five hops to the mile".

There are very few edible plants native to Australia, though settlers from Britain naturally introduced many. Yet this strange land does offer magnificent stands of timber in the moist coastal regions, where the eucalyptus rears its crest three hundred feet in the air, and where the jarrah and karri of Western Australia sometimes reach over four hundred feet. The pine and gum trees yield fine hard timber, while cedar, plentiful in the tropical north, is often used



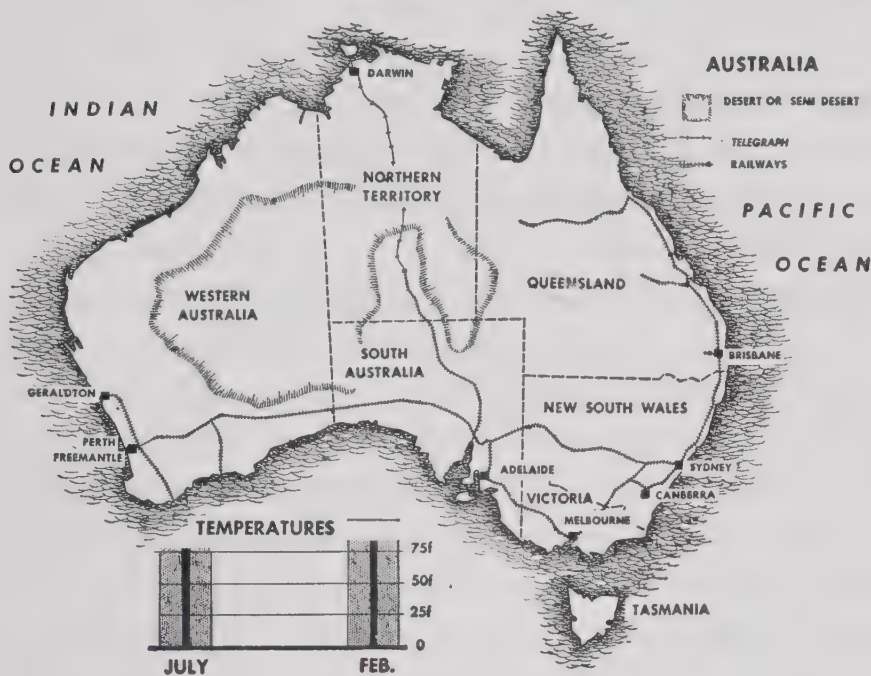
in furniture. Otherwise, the native vegetation beyond the coasts is chiefly grass, that grows in tufts not continuous turf, clumps of small trees and bushes, and in the dry central regions, acacia scrub, and the dreaded thorny spinefex.

The vegetation of Australia is, of course, chiefly controlled by climate and surface features. To understand the Australian climate one must remember that the greater part of the continent lies within tropical or sub-tropical zones. The Tropic of Capricorn cuts right across the middle of Queensland. Combined with the directions of prevailing winds that control the rainfall, this means a warm moist climate for the coastal fringes of Australia and a hot dry climate for the greater part of the continent. Only in the southeast, and especially in Tasmania, is the climate really temperate. But in the region where most Australians live, roughly between Sydney and Melbourne, it is generally sunny, even, and pleasant.

(b) **The Regions of Australia.** The surface of Australia is marked first of all by a long narrow plain along the east coast, stretching from Victoria to northern Queensland. Along these eastern coastlands the rainfall is plentiful. This in the warm north means sugar plantations and tropical fruit-growing, and in the more temperate south, dairying, mixed farming, orchards, and vineyards. Here is the densest population, especially in the southern portion of the plain, and here as well lie some of Australia's leading cities, such as Brisbane, Sydney, and Melbourne. Behind the coastal plain runs a chain of mountains, known as the Great Dividing Range, but in Queensland they are so low and wide that they hardly form a barrier at all. Well to the south they do rise above 6,000 feet, and in the region called the Australian Alps lofty and beautiful snow-capped peaks are found—another contrast of this wonderful land of snow and heat, great trees and completely empty desert.

Beyond the Dividing Range, the broad interior plains slope gently away towards the centre of the continent. Less rain falls here and it steadily decreases towards the dry centre. In the north

of this plains region, in Queensland, a great many beef cattle are raised on the rich grasslands, while sheep-grazing is the chief activity in most of inland New South Wales. But further towards the south, in New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, a great wheat belt sweeps in a curve across the interior plains, centering around the Murray and Darling Rivers. The Murray river system, Australia's one great waterway, flows through these plains for over 2,000 miles to its mouth in South Australia near the large city of Adelaide. Much of this long waterway is navigable



for steamboats, though the dry season lowers parts of it seriously and even shrinks some stretches to a mere series of pools.

Moving west, we find the interior plains gradually merging into the great arid plateau that covers most of the western half of the continent. Grass slowly gives way to scrub. But sheep-grazing goes on for some distance, since the presence of deep artesian springs under the sun-baked ground makes it possible to drill for life-giving water for the animals. At last, however, the lifeless burning desert is reached, where rain never falls and the very winds scorch with heat. A large part of the state of Western Australia lies in this region. Yet even here there are a

few more pleasant stretches—such as the man-made oasis at the mining town of Kalgoorlie, where water for lawns and trees is pumped from a source 350 miles away. Closer to the west coast, grass and sheep-raising return. And not far from the coast, in the southwest corner of the continent, there are fertile farmlands once more that enjoy ample rainfall. This is the Swan River region, where Western Australia began, and where the main western city of Perth now lies.

Northward, beyond the great desert, there are moist coastlands again, but here tropical heat prevails, and so the Northern Territory has dense lush forests, mangrove swamps infested with crocodiles, and thick grass over ten feet tall. Towards the interior, where this grass is shorter but still plentiful, cattle stations have sprung up. On the northern coast, pearl diving is carried on, employing native divers.

(c) **Resources and Products.** Though Australia's chief resources lie in its great grassy expanses for stock raising or in its areas of good farmlands, it has as well very important mineral deposits. Its gold supply is not as rich as it once was, but Australia still has valuable gold mines, as well as silver, copper, tin and zinc deposits. Besides these, Australia produces a large amount of lead, standing second in world production. There are many coal fields along the eastern coast, and iron mining is increasing steadily, now that Australia is turning out its own steel for industrial use. Australian industry has advanced so rapidly in recent years that it is now supplying for itself many of the manufactures that formerly had to be imported from Britain or the United States. Ships, railway stock, farm machinery and automobiles, are among the heavy products of industry that Australia can now turn out herself, and she is building up new markets for her manufactures in Asia.

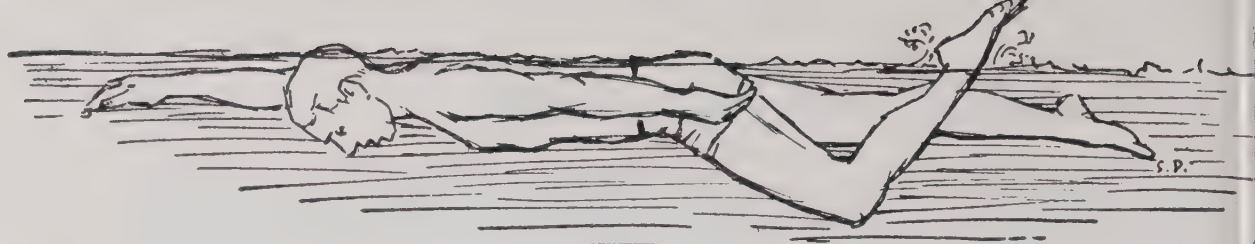
Yet Australia's main income still comes from the wool, meat, and wheat that is sent abroad to European and North American markets. Canada buys Australia's wool and minerals, as well as her fruits, raisins and wines. Australian wheat and meat generally go to Britain. The wheat is softer than Canadian and does not

mill as well. But it fits in neatly with Australian sheep-raising, as farmers often let their land lie fallow for a year to save its moisture for wheat, and in the meantime put sheep to graze on the weeds that grow up. Because of the dry climate Australian wheat need not be stored in grain elevators but only put in sacks in open-sided sheds until ready for shipment.

(d) **The People of Australia.** Thanks to this wealth of products, the Australian people live in comfort, well-fed and cared for by their huge land. But they had to overcome many problems to gain that comfort. It did not come easily. There was, for example, the problem of communications; the steep Dividing Range in the south, the lack of waterways, the broad desert belt. Fortunate it was for them that the seas were open around the coasts. Then there was the vital problem of scant rainfall, met in part by the use of sheep, in part by dry-farming methods, and in part by drilling deep wells. Finally there was and is the problem of size. Australia is a vast continent with a small population of only eight millions, and it is a continent with a dead heart. Can it ever be filled in? Can east and west ever be closely linked? Until that problem is met more successfully Australia will continue to look with concern to the north at over-crowded Asia.

But the average Australian is a likeable, breezy, easy-going person who does not seem to worry much. He lives in a climate that invites him to stay out of doors and enjoy the wonders of his land. This is true for the city dwellers too—and most Australians are city dwellers. We may like to think of the tanned sheep herder or the ranger stockman of the 'outback' as the typical Australian, but the real average Australian lives and works in a great seacoast city. There, however, it is said that he spends most of his time in the garden, on the beaches, or at sports, so he still may have an outdoor tan!

The Australian cities, like Sydney and Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Adelaide are generally beautifully laid out with fine public buildings and colourful, flower-filled parks. Sydney with its remarkable harbour is world famous. In these cities may be



A VERSION OF THE AUSTRALIAN CRAWL

seen large universities, fine orchestras, active theatres and ballet groups. Canadians would not find Australian schools too different from their own in the subjects taught, though in school sports cricket and soccer would replace baseball, football or hockey. Cricket or tennis are the leading national games, and in these Australians have often led the world. The average Australian boy or girl may get no chance to skate or to ski, but in their warm climate they can play far more tennis and go in swimming much more than Canadians can. But would you want to give up the joys of Canadian winter for Australia's perpetual sunshine? Perhaps the thought of eating a big hot Christmas dinner in the midst of a heat wave would settle that for most of us.

3. New Zealand's Story

(a) **The Maori People and the Coming of White Men.** The story of the modern Dominion of New Zealand only goes back to 1840 when it was formally declared a British possession. But for many centuries before that, the handsome, intelligent, brown-skinned Maori people had prospered in this island paradise. Their ancestors, distant relatives of the Hawaiians, came to New Zealand from the islands of Polynesia some two hundred years before Columbus reached America, and their voyage was as daring as that of Columbus, for it was made across 2,000 miles of the vast Pacific in long, open, war canoes. The Polynesians were indeed skilful navigators, for they had learned to plot their way with remarkable accuracy across the empty ocean by the stars. Today the Maoris keep alive the story of their brave ancestors in song and legend, and many of them are hardy seamen still.



LIFE IN A MAORI VILLAGE

In New Zealand, 'the land of the long white cloud' as they called it, the Maoris lived by farming and fishing, and dwelled in villages surrounded by stockades of tree trunks. Their wooden huts were decorated with elaborate carving, done with stone knives and chisels. They wore fine cloaks of feathers and woven grass skirts, and often tattooed their faces, supposedly to improve their looks! In some ways they were like the Indians of Canada, for they were a proud, independent people, whose tribes fought fiercely when white men threatened their freedom. Today, however, they live peaceably beside their white New Zealand neighbours, farming their own lands with great success, and entering freely into the life of the country. This noble, high-spirited people has taken readily to white civilization. Nowhere in the Commonwealth of Nations has a native people adjusted itself more successfully to the coming of white men, without losing its native arts, traditions and cherished ways of life.

When the white men came, there were about 100,000 Maoris

in the North Island of New Zealand but only a few hundred in the larger South Island: perhaps because the warmer North Island was more sub-tropical in its climate and vegetation and so more like the Maoris' old homelands in the tropic Society Islands, far to the northeast. The first white men to visit New Zealand after Captain Cook had discovered it in 1769 were sailors from whaling ships hunting in the southern seas. Then came traders and also runaway convicts from New South Wales. The Maoris were friendly as long as they were not cheated. You can see, however, that many of these white men would be rough, hard and sometimes wicked. New Zealand became a sort of no-man's land, claimed by no one, where white rowdiness and brutality were repaid by savage Maori attacks. The tribes, who enjoyed fighting (and sometimes eating) their enemies, thus gained a grim name for fierceness. Hence for a long time no one thought of settling this beautiful but dangerous country.

Brave missionaries, however, began to come from England to christianize the Maoris. They taught many of them to grow wheat and to pasture sheep and cattle. And they brought some peace and order to the troubled land—especially Samuel Marsden, who crossed from Australia in 1814 and won the Maoris' friendship. Some people began to urge the British government to take formal possession of New Zealand and establish firm order. But Britain then was not eager to take on the burden of new colonies, and the English missionaries opposed settlement because they were afraid the Maoris would be spoiled by the evil sides of the white man's life.

In England meanwhile a group of people led by Edward Gibbon Wakefield, the colonizer of South Australia, were anxious to settle some of Britain's overcrowded masses in fertile but near-empty New Zealand, whether the British government would help or not. They formed the New Zealand Association and sent out a large well-selected body of immigrants. This forced the government to act, especially since France, having claimed the island of Tahiti and driven out the British missionaries there, was about

to do the same in New Zealand. In January, 1840, Britain took possession of New Zealand. A new colony was born.

(b) **A Colony Takes Shape.** Britain took possession of New Zealand by agreement with the Maoris in the Treaty of Waitangi, which left the natives owning the land under British rule, and made clear that any colonists would have to purchase lands from the Maoris before they could begin settlement. This, however, only led to misunderstanding and bad feelings on both sides as settlements were started. The New Zealand Company and its colonists tended to ignore the Maoris' complicated rules of land ownership. The Maoris really enjoyed legal arguments, and sometimes tried to make settlers pay several times for the same stretch of property. The land quarrels became so hot that in 1848 there was a Maori uprising in the North Island. Fortunately an able British governor, Sir George Grey, won the Maoris' confidence, bought large amounts of land from them, and restored peace. The Maoris admired him so much that they asked that he be made governor for life when his term ended in 1853.

By now, settlement had proceeded far, especially in South Island where there was no Maori trouble. Three settlements had been made in North Island, two of them at Wellington and Auckland, New Zealand's principal cities today, and three in South Island, of which the Scottish settlement at Dunedin and the English settlement at Christchurch were the most important. The New Zealand colonists, almost wholly English or Scots, were of a good type, and they thrived from the start in farming the fertile soil of this well-watered, pleasant country.

New Zealand had grown so fast, in fact, that in 1856 it was granted responsible government. At first its system of government was a federal one, something like Canada's today. Because the settlements were scattered, several provinces were set up, and there were provincial governments as well as a central one. Unlike Canada or Australia, however, New Zealand did not keep the federal system, for as the settlements advanced they merged together. There were no difficult geographic barriers or great dis-

tances as in Canada or Australia. Thus in 1876 this country changed its federal union to a complete, or legislative, union under only one government and parliament. This is still the governing system, and it too follows the British parliamentary pattern. There is a Governor-General, Prime Minister and Cabinet, and two Houses of Parliament, called the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives.



"YOU, MAORI? - UGH, ME HEAP BIG INDIAN TOO!"

But before this simpler form of government had been established New Zealand had gone through a trying time of renewed Maori troubles. The old land quarrel burst forth with new violence as white settlers pressed in on the Maoris. For over ten years (1860-1871) the centre of North Island was a scene of bitter war. The Maoris fought with great skill and gallantry from behind their strong palisades against both colonial and regular troops. The long dragged-out war cost the colony a great deal of money and discouraged immigrants. Perhaps the best part was that its cost in lives was surprisingly low, and also that both sides showed much humanity in the fight: the Maoris, for example, risked their lives to bring water to prisoners held in their

stockades. As a result when peace was made there was little bitterness to overcome. The land question was finally settled, giving the Maoris security, and it was agreed that four Maori members should henceforth sit in parliament. Since then, moreover, there has always been a Maori minister in the cabinet, and on occasion a man of Maori descent has been prime minister. Here, indeed, is a bright story of race relations in the Commonwealth.

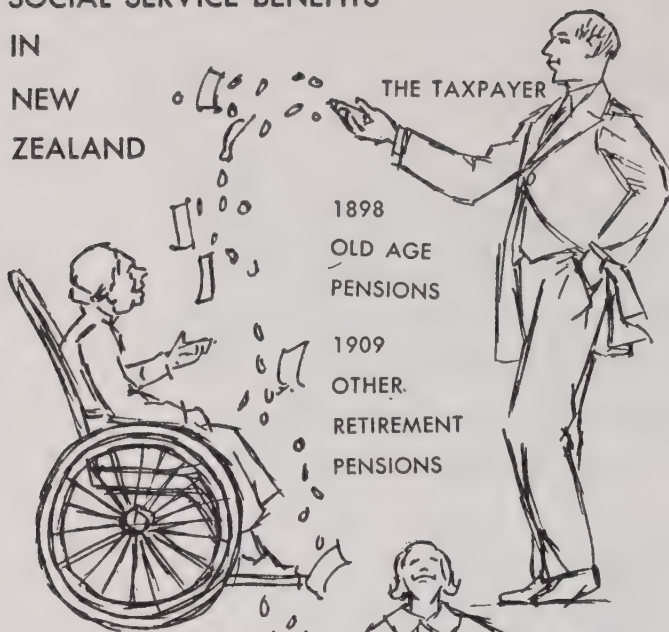
Recovering from the wars, New Zealand soon forged ahead. Gold strikes in South Island helped a good deal, though the gold and the gold rush did not last too long. The opening of coal fields helped also. But in the long run the most important development for the colony was the invention of the refrigerator ship in the 1870's. Now frozen New Zealand mutton could be sold to far-off England in great quantities, whereas before it would have spoiled on the long voyage across the equator. On its lush green pastures New Zealand could raise fine sheep, for their meat rather than their wool as in drier Australia. Dairy cattle also flourished, and thanks to refrigeration, cheese and butter could also be sent to England. So New Zealand farming thrived on the big British market, and the islands advanced by leaps and bounds. In 1907 New Zealand was named a Dominion.

(c) **The New Zealand 'Social-Service State'.** New Zealand, like Australia, had had a strong democratic character from the start and had also gone far ahead in democratic reforms. Thus, for example, it led the world by giving votes to women in 1893. Because of this full democracy, the whole people had a good deal of influence in New Zealand affairs, and they were able to demand that the government give them security and aid them in many ways. New Zealand farmers had always done much by co-operation; that is, they had joined together to help one another, and they expected their own government to serve them too. With increasing trade the islands had more wealth and population, and a social-service state began to develop no less than in Australia.

National old age pensions were set up in 1898, the first in

SOCIAL SERVICE BENEFITS

IN
NEW
ZEALAND



THE TAXPAYER

1898
OLD AGE
PENSIONS

1909
OTHER
RETIREMENT
PENSIONS



1926

FAMILY
ALLOWANCES

BY 1950 —

FREE EDUCATION
THROUGH UNIVERSITY,



LOW COST HOUSING



NEARLY ALL
MEDICAL EXPENSES

the English-speaking world. After 1900 other kinds of pensions were added. By 1926 New Zealand was giving family allowances, which were not begun in Canada till 1946. In 1938 a full Social Security Act was passed. Today New Zealanders receive government aid in old age, and in case of sickness and accident. They have free education, including university education, low-rent houses, and almost free medical care. All this, of course, is paid for by taxes. The whole system comes close to socialism, especially since the government controls so many forms of business. Socialist forces have long been important in New Zealand. The Labour Party, which is strong here as in Australia, stands for full socialism of the gradual British kind. When Labour was in power during the depression years of the 1930's, and again during and after the Second World War, it put through some important laws of a socialist kind. That a Labour Party is strong even in this mainly farming country is explained by the fact that even the farmers here are generally members of labour unions. Yet, again as in Australia, the Labour Party

stopped short of full socialism while in power, and private business still has a large area of activity. The cautious, free-spirited New Zealanders do not seem to want total government control, however much they like security.

In fact, it appears that so far New Zealand has more successfully combined democracy and socialism, freedom and security, than most countries. No doubt in a small, united country of less than two million people, which also has been pretty steadily prosperous, this combination has been easier than in a bigger, more complicated land. But New Zealand's prosperity largely depends on the British market. And because of Britain's financial troubles since the Second World War, some say that New Zealand's social security is no longer very secure at all. All the same, perhaps nowhere in the world are there less extremes of poverty and riches and more general contentment than in this 'country of the little man'. It is a great achievement for this, the smallest nation of the Commonwealth.

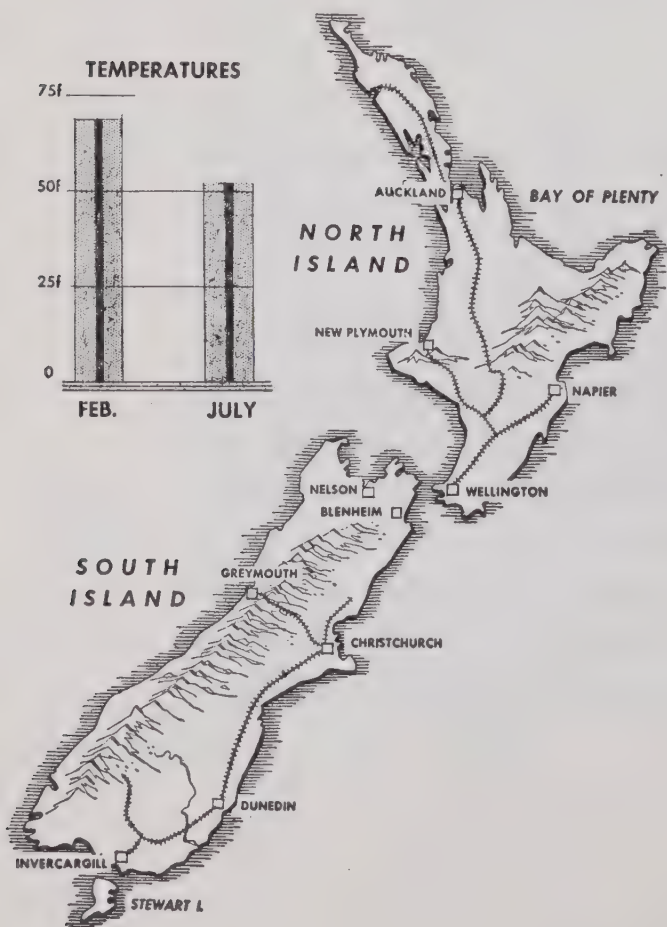
4. New Zealand Today

(a) **The Land and its Climate.** New Zealand is indeed a small country, in size as well as in population, for it is not much larger than England and Scotland together. You might expect therefore, that its climate would be much the same over the whole country and that there would not be room for many big geographic divisions. You would be generally right. New Zealand throughout has a mild moist 'oceanic' climate, and its surface features do not break the nation into different sections as they do Canada or Australia. Nevertheless, there are some variations in climate, and there is a wonderful variety of scenery in the two main islands. The third island, Stewart, off the bottom tip of South Island, is not large enough or important enough to be given attention by itself.

New Zealand, you should also remember, lies somewhat farther south than the bulk of Australia. Its northern tip only reaches to a point about opposite Sydney. Thus in general it has a much cooler climate. The busy city of Dunedin near the bottom of South Island, for example, is about the same distance away from the hot equator as is Montreal in Canada. This does not mean that Dunedin has cold winters like Montreal, for the seas surrounding New Zealand moderate the climate and give it far less extreme temperatures. Nevertheless, the fact remains that New Zealand is a temperate and by no means a tropical land.

North Island is somewhat warmer than South, and the climate is so even and mild that some sub-tropical vegetation can be found. It has a rather Mediterranean environment. Both islands receive plenty of rainfall, although the southeastern plains of South Island and some of its uplands get spells of dry weather. But even then sufficient rain falls at regular periods so that the farmer has little to worry about. Indeed, it is said that New Zealand is where good farmers go, for there they have only to plant and harvest, and not worry about frost, floods, hail or drought.

In native vegetation and animal life New Zealand is almost as distinctive as Australia, for it too is a very isolated part of the world. Thus originally New Zealand had no large land animals and no snakes, but was the home of such strange birds as the ostrich-like giant moa (now extinct) and its small cousin, the flightless kiwi, now a popular New Zealand emblem. New Zealand grasses were originally so strange to the white man's farm animals that European grasses had to be widely sown for them to feed on. But the most distinctive vegetation of New



Zealand are its kauri pines and the many kinds of fern. The tall straight kauri tree can no longer be cut down without permission, but the gum that drops from it in lumps is dug up around the trees and sold for use in making varnish. The ferns of New Zealand vary from those that carpet the forests to those which grow as trees waving their feathery fronds fifty feet in the air. The 'Land of the Fern' is a well-chosen name for the island Dominion.

(b) **The Two Islands.** The forests and ferns are found in both North and South Islands, but each island has distinctive features of its own. North Island is of volcanic origin, with many lofty mountains, of which the most beautiful is Mount Egmont, over 8,000 feet high. There is only one active volcano there, but spouting geysers and hot springs bubble up from the volcanic rock in the wonderful National Park near the centre of the island. Here, in fact, Maori women cook their dinners in boiling springs and feel no need for stoves. The whole centre of North Island is a pattern of mountain ranges, embroidered with dark green forest and shining blue lakes. Yet fertile river valleys spread out to the coasts to give plenty of room for farming. Grain, apples, oranges, as well as wool and meat, are produced here. Palm-studded Auckland, New Zealand's largest city, is the centre of a great dairying district. 'Windy Wellington', the handsome capital, is also on North Island. The name comes from the weather, not the politicians, of course.

Across Cook Strait, which at its narrowest is less than twenty miles wide, lies the larger South Island. A sharp backbone of mountains runs close to the coast all down its western side. These are the Southern Alps, many of them snow capped all year round, whose highest peak is Mount Cook, 12,000 feet tall. Here is New Zealand's playground for winter sports. Great glaciers wind down to the sea from the heights, through the wet evergreen forests of the western coast. Many of



THE KIWI

these rivers of ice end in steep narrow fiords, of which the most breath-taking is Milford Sound. The scenery here is much like that of Canada's own mountain-walled western coast.

Eastward the mountains slope away more gradually to the long, level Canterbury Plain that stretches down the east side of South Island. The rolling uplands may be a bit dry, but the plain gets sufficient rainfall, and offers some of the finest pasture land in the world. White flocks of sheep dot the green plain. Its gentle silver rivers and fine groves of trees, with perhaps a church spire rising above them, are reminders of old England. Indeed, the first settlers of the plain came out from England to found its chief city, the gracious and English-seeming Christchurch. They brought English trees out with them, to transplant England's dreamy countryside to the far South Pacific.

If Christchurch is English, Dunedin, farther down the coast, is Scottish in origin and appearance. There is even a look of the Scottish highlands in the country here. Coal is found near Dunedin, and it is a busy port city. South Island also produces other minerals, but its chief reliance is on sheep and dairy cattle. Grainlands about Christchurch yield more than twice as much per acre as those of Australia. Yet the region is best known for the frozen 'Canterbury Lamb' so largely sold in Britain.

(c) **Products and People.** Meat, butter, cheese and wool—these are the chief products shipped abroad by New Zealand. We in Canada use New Zealand butter, often without knowing it. The mild climate and rich grass makes it possible to produce these exports very cheaply, without expensive buildings or extra fodder for the animals. Other farm products, aside from flax, New Zealand chiefly uses at home. Her mining and manufacturing also are too limited to produce goods for sale abroad. The islands are not rich in mineral resources; their coal is not of good quality. What is lacking here for steam power, however, New Zealand partly makes up by harnessing her mountain rivers and falls to produce ample hydro-electricity. Cheap hydro power is used almost everywhere to light and run New Zealand farms and drive

her factories. On this basis, New Zealand industry is growing, and now makes textiles and machinery, among other items, for use in the Dominion. As in Australia's case, the Second World War that cut off many overseas sources of manufactured goods did much to encourage New Zealand industry.

Yet this is still largely a country of farmers who live a healthy, outdoors life in their mild climate. New Zealanders are one of the best fed people in the world, and consume a great amount of meat, in particular. Life on a sheep ranch on Canterbury Plain or on a dairy farm in North Island is by no means a lonely one, moreover. Distances are small and roads are good. The cities are never far away and neighbours are easy to visit. Thus country life in general is pleasant and spacious. Nor is city life cramped in this climate where people need little heat in their airy houses and can so often be out of doors. Because New Zealanders have so largely lived a simple open-air life however, they have not given much effort to creating their own culture. Their literature, art and music they have taken from outside, often from Britain from which most of their forefathers came. But they are developing strong national feelings, and in time a national New Zealand culture will surely emerge, to tell of the beauties and the contentment of this lovely land.

5. The Pacific Nations Enter World Affairs

Australia and New Zealand grew up as nations a little later than Canada and so were a little slower to enter world affairs. While Canada after the First World War was seeking to control her own foreign affairs, the two Pacific nations were still generally willing to have Britain manage their relations with foreign countries. As the Empire grew into the Commonwealth they did take more part in international affairs, but it was really only with the Second World War that Australia

and New Zealand emerged as Pacific powers in their own right and began playing a definite part on the world stage.

Nevertheless they had had some concerns outside their borders long before. Australia had always been interested in New Guinea, the big tropical island which lay so close to her northern coasts. It was Germany's expansion into New Guinea which had been one cause of the Australian states drawing together for self-defence in the federal union of 1901. After the First World War, in which the famous ANZAC (Australia and New Zealand Army Corps) forces fought heroically against Germany, Australia was given charge of former German New Guinea. New Zealand in the same way received control of the German Samoan Islands near her. Thus, unlike Canada, these Pacific Dominions have outside territories to govern.



AN 'ANZAC'

Yet it was only with the Second World War that Australia and New Zealand became real powers in the Pacific. Both sent large numbers of troops to the war against Germany in Europe and Africa, but when war broke out with Japan as well they found themselves facing dangers much closer to home. At first, indeed, it looked as if the advancing Japanese would take New Guinea and cross to Australia. Plans were made for falling back from Australia's Northern Territory, and New Zealand too was preparing for the worst.

It did not come to that, but the dangers of the war made Australia and New Zealand determine that henceforth they would play an active part in world affairs to do all they could to protect themselves in the Pacific. Again they realized that eight million Australians and less than two million New Zealanders were faced with hundreds of millions of possible foes in Asia. In the Japanese war, besides, they worked closely

with the United States, which was also very concerned with security in the Pacific. Thus Australia and New Zealand and the United States moved closer together, and after the war formed an alliance to aid one another in the Pacific. This did not mean that Australia and New Zealand lost their ties with Britain and the Commonwealth, but rather that they gained a new friend. In fact, this was just one more region of the world where the United States and the Commonwealth found themselves standing side by side.

The Second World War in general increased Australia's and New Zealand's contacts with North America. Trade between them increased. Large American forces were stationed in Australia. Canada sent signalling units there, while Australia and New Zealand fliers were trained in Canada as part of the Commonwealth Air Training Plan. In this whole vast scheme Canada and her Pacific partners co-operated closely, and for the first time Australians and New Zealanders came in large numbers to Canada, thus knitting tighter the friendly bonds of the Commonwealth.

Today Australia and New Zealand are clearly recognized by the world as important Pacific powers. They have played a notable part in the United Nations, and as members of the United Nations they entered the Korean war against communism. They have also taken an active share in the Commonwealth's plan to prevent the spread of communism in South East Asia by improving the backward state of its people. In all this Australia and New Zealand are showing their concern about Asia and their own exposed position. But beyond that, they are showing that they have come of age: that the Commonwealth countries of the Pacific are eager to do all in their power to work for the peace and freedom of the whole world.

Learn by Doing

1. (a) Two committees compare the problems which faced early Canadian pioneers with those faced by the early settlers of Australia. (1, b)
(b) A panel discusses the similar effects a gold rush had on Victoria and British Columbia. (1, c)
2. (a) One half the class may obtain the reasons for Confederation in Canada and the other half for the Union of the Australian states. (1, d)
(b) Discuss whether you prefer the Australian form of government which gives specific powers to the central government and the rest to the states or the Canadian form which does the opposite. (1, d)
3. (a) Prepare a series of illustrations showing ways in which Australia differs from other countries. Each pupil shows his picture and states the way in which Australia is different. (2, a)
4. Make a surface feature map of Australia using asbestos fibre. (2, b)
5. Prepare posters using cut out pictures to illustrate Australia's chief exports and imports. (2, c)
6. Discuss the effect of the following on the climate of New Zealand: zone, winds, water, height of land. (4, a)
7. Two committees discuss the difference between North Island and South Island. (4, b)
8. Write a newspaper report outlining the contributions of Australia in the Second World War. (5)

Facts to Know

1. Tell in what way the following two events were important in Australian history. (1, a)
(a) The landing of the first settlers on the southeast coast of Australia.
(b) The development of Merino sheep by Captain John MacArthur. (1, a)
2. Prepare a map of Australia showing the states with the date when each was founded. (1, a)

3. Australia led in developing the 'secret ballot'. Outline briefly the importance of this contribution. (1, c)
4. List some of the social services supplied by the governments of Australia and New Zealand. Compare them with those supplied by Canada. (1, e and 3, c)
5. Describe the effects of the following wind systems on Australia: Westerlies, Trade, Monsoons.
6. Account for the following:
 - (a) Australian people often spend Christmas on the beaches.
 - (b) Australians tend to be more skilled at tennis than Canadians and less skilled at hockey.
7. Compare the skills of the Maori of New Zealand with those of the Canadian Indian. (3, a)
8. Prepare a map of New Zealand marking on Wellington, Auckland, Christchurch and Dunedin. State how each was started. (3, b)

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UNIT THIRTEEN

THE COMMONWEALTH IN AFRICA

1. *South Africa's Story*
2. *South Africa Today*
3. *The British Empire in Africa*
4. *The Commonwealth and Africa*

When we turn to Commonwealth lands in Africa, we find them much less like Canada than are Australia and New Zealand. Canada and the two Pacific members of the Commonwealth differ in many ways, of course. Yet Australia and New Zealand, like Canada, are inhabited by European peoples who came largely from Britain, and they share much the same background, customs and ideas. The Union of South Africa, on the other hand, which is the only country in Africa with full Commonwealth membership, has a European population that is far outnumbered by the native Africans. Other parts of the British Empire in Africa, which are developing toward full self-government, are also peopled almost wholly by native races with a different background from our own, and widely different ways of life.

Thus, it is instructive to compare Canada with the Commonwealth lands in Africa, and particularly with the Union of South Africa. Like Canada, with its British and French groups, the Union of South Africa is a country with two languages and two cultures, British and Dutch in origin. As in Canada, also, the non-British group was in the country first, and when it came under British rule, new settlers arrived from Britain so that the two groups had to learn to live and work together. So Canada and the Union of South Africa have both faced the problem of building a nation out of two distinct peoples. There is one great difference between them, however. In Canada, the great majority of the people are of European ancestry, but in the Union of South Africa, only one-sixth of the people are of white origin. Racial problems in the Union of South Africa have thus been far greater than in Canada, and they are today by far the most critical problem in the country.

Even in the rest of Africa, we may draw comparisons with Canada. Native African peoples, living in the bush as Canadian pioneers once did, are now making similar demands to govern themselves, and are advancing to the same goal of the British type of responsible government. Despite differences in colour, people are really much the same everywhere, meeting the same basic problem of making a living, and feeling the same desire to manage their own affairs. In looking at the Commonwealth in Africa it is well to remember this.

1. South Africa's Story

(a) **Dutch and British Foundations.** The story of the Commonwealth in Africa really begins at the southern tip of the continent, when men from Europe first cast anchor at the Cape of Good Hope to refill their water casks for the long voyage to India. The bold Portuguese discoverer, Vasco da Gama,

was the first to round the Cape on his way to India in 1497. He was followed by other Portuguese mariners. But after 1600 Dutch and English largely replaced the Portuguese in the sea trade with the east, and it was the Dutch who decided to establish a regular base at the Cape of Good Hope. This was to be a half-way point to provision and repair the ships of the Dutch East India Company on their long voyage to eastern lands.

So in 1652 three Dutch ships under stout Jan van Riebeck sailed into the fine harbour of Table Bay at the Cape, with over a hundred Dutch colonists aboard. A wooden fort, and then a dockyard, were built, while vegetables, corn and fruits were readily raised in the fertile soil, under the warm sun. When van Riebeck departed from the Cape after ten years as governor, he left behind him a flourishing little settlement—a garden spot in the vast barren emptiness of South Africa.

The Dutch East India Company was only interested in a ship-repair and provision base, and tried to discourage settlers from moving off the Company's farm. But when inviting empty acres lay all around, it was difficult to keep the hardy Dutch colonists from spreading out. They did not mind a few clashes with the unfriendly but weak native peoples, the shy little Bushman hunters, or the Hottentot cattle-herders. Indeed, the Dutch pioneers came to take the view, found also among early North American colonists, that the only good native is a dead native. As they expanded into the interior, they set out to destroy or drive away the native tribes. These pioneer farmers were called 'Boers' (the Dutch word for farmer) to distinguish them from those who remained as Company servants. The Boers, a simple, stern, devout people, were bold frontiersmen and strong believers in their 'natural' superiority over the natives. They have left a permanent mark on Dutch South Africa.

The colony at the Cape grew further with the arrival of Huguenots, French Protestants, who had been driven out of Catholic France. Sharing the same Protestant faith, they blended easily into the Dutch settlement. Today French words and names can

still be heard in 'Dutch' South Africa. That is one reason why its people now prefer to be called Afrikaners and their tongue Afrikaans. Their language is no longer the same as the Dutch of the Netherlands; and in their very different land, with the French element mixed among them, the Afrikaners have truly become a new people: just as the British colonists in North America in time became Americans or Canadians.

By the time Dutch rule in South Africa came to an end in 1795, the colony was well advanced. On the coast was the thriving port of Cape Town, and behind it large wine- and grain-producing estates. Inland the Boers had great cattle ranches, worked by native slave-labour. They had pushed far eastward over the rising plains, driving off or enslaving native tribes in their path. At length, however, they had met much stronger foes than the Bushmen or Hottentots: the fierce Kaffirs, who were part of the powerful Bantu negro peoples, then moving down from the middle of Africa. Thus the advancing Boer frontier came to a stop. Nevertheless it had covered an area nearly as large as the British Isles, and within this region the Boers ranged free, feeling crowded, it is said, if they could see a neighbour's chimney across the open plain.

Dutch rule in South Africa came to an end because of the French Revolution. The armies of the French Revolution had conquered the Netherlands, and France planned to use the Dutch colony at the Cape as a base to attack Britain's trade with India. To prevent this, a British fleet seized Cape Town. It changed hands again before the war against Napoleon was over, but in the final peace of 1815, Britain kept it, realizing its value as a halfway-house to India. It was the seaport at the Cape, not the interior, which interested Britain, since at the time she felt no desire to expand her empire further.

As a result, little was done at first to bring British settlers to South Africa. In 1820, 3,500 British colonists did arrive (by now there were 20,000 Dutch, or Afrikaners), and they founded Port Elizabeth, well eastward along the coast from Cape Town. This

settlement, however, was made to relieve post-war unemployment in Britain, and when times improved it was not followed up. Small numbers of British settlers continued to come in, building up British foundations in South Africa, but on the whole the colony did not seem to be greatly changed by the coming of British rule.

(b) **The Great Trek and the Boer Republics.** Great changes were, however, in the offing, as disagreements began to pile up between Boers and British officials in South Africa. At first there had been little difficulty in establishing British control, since the colonists had not had much love for the selfish and unimproving rule of the old Dutch East India Company. But soon trouble began to appear, because the British took a very different view of slavery from that of the Boers, who believed it was not only right and proper, but was vital to their whole way of life.

Britain after 1815 was being swept by a rising wave of humanitarian feeling. She was particularly influenced by the missionaries she sent to Africa, who taught that a black man's soul and body were just as important as a white man's. The Boers, however, held to the harsh old view that negroes were naturally inferior and meant by God to be the slaves of Europeans. They also felt, and with some truth, that British officials new to the country did not understand the difficulties of the native question, and they resented laws intended to make them treat their slaves better. Nevertheless, while the Boers were usually just to their slaves and did not deserve to be charged with cruelty, we can hardly agree with their defence of slavery.

British and Boers also disagreed on the question of the frontier. The Boers, still seeking new lands, kept pressing on the Kaffirs, and a long series of frontier wars resulted. The Boers could well point out that the Kaffirs, coming in from the north, had no more right to the land than they. Besides the Kaffirs constantly raided Boer frontier farms. But the British government, not wanting to see the Boers enslave any more natives, and not wanting the expense of frontier wars and of policing a larger colony, set its

face against any further expansion. Hence the Boers felt that they were being left exposed on the frontier, despite a number of British campaigns fought there. And they thought that the British plan of a permanent boundary with the warlike Kaffirs was quite unrealistic.

Then in 1833 the British Parliament abolished slavery in all Britain's domains. It was a noble step, and an expensive one for the British taxpayer, whose money paid slave-owners for the property they were losing. In South Africa, the Boers accepted the end of slavery, but they felt the money payment was worth only half the value of the slaves they were giving up. More than that, their property was being taken away by a Parliament in which they were not represented. Bitter feelings over the slavery question and the British frontier policy gradually came to a head. Many Boers determined to take themselves right out of British territory, away from the interfering British government and its wrong-headed ideas.

They planned to strike northeast into the vast unexplored country beyond the Drakensberg range, which would also get them behind the Kaffir barrier. The 'trek', or overland march, would be a long and dangerous one, through lands of other warlike Bantu tribes. But the sturdy, self-reliant Boers had already come far on their own from the Cape, and were not at all afraid to push on.

And so in 1835 the Great Trek began. Year by year small parties set out, some joining together, and there was no one single movement. Moreover, many stayed behind: in fact, the larger part of the Afrikaner population still remained in the Cape Colony. Nevertheless the Trek was a large and highly important migration that ended in creating several new states in Africa. The Boer 'voortrekkers' moved out over the grassy plains, or the 'veldt', in ox-drawn wagon trains, much like the covered wagons of the North American West, taking their native servants and cattle with them. Again like the covered-wagon pioneers, they formed in circles to fight off the natives; though the American wagon trains seldom had to battle through such powerful or such sustained



THE GREAT TREK

attacks as the Boers did. For the vastly outnumbered voortrekkers faced some of the strongest and fiercest natives in Africa—the well organized Zulus and the savage Matabele—who were fighting desperately to hold the land for themselves.

Yet Boer determination and the white man's weapons won out against native bravery and numbers. Thus, as the years went by, some of the voortrekkers were able to establish themselves along the Orange River. Some went further east, into Natal, and others on northward into the 'high veldt' across the Vaal River. In Natal, after hard fighting with the Zulus, the Boers founded a little republic, only to learn that the British who were already on the coast at Durban, were planning to set up a government there. And so the Boers grimly turned back into the high veldt, leaving Natal, the most fertile region in South Africa, to become also the most British, as English-speaking settlers at last flocked into it from 1848 on.

By the 1850's two other Boer republics had taken lasting shape, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. For a time, and not unwillingly, the Orange River colonists accepted some British control that brought them law and order and help against native troubles. The most restless of the Boers withdrew to the Transvaal, which hardly had any government at all. But Britain was still not eager to increase her obligations in Africa, and so by 1854 she recognized the independence of both the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, leaving them as two lasting monuments to the heroism of the Great Trek.



(c) **Gold, Empire Builders, and War.** It would be wrong to think of these young sheep-farming and cattle-farming Boer republics as living peacefully by themselves, since they were constantly clashing with native peoples as they sought to extend their territories further. Still, their citizens had apparently succeeded in withdrawing from the outside world, as they had wanted, in order to live their own lives. Unfortunately, new discoveries suddenly brought the outside world into their midst, with weighty consequences for all South Africa.

First, in 1867, valuable diamond fields were discovered at Kimberley near the borders of the Orange Free State. This brought a sudden rush of miners from Britain and Europe to upset the

quiet ways of the Boer farmer. Those Boers who most hated the uproar and money-madness of the mining boom accordingly moved on into the Transvaal. But here in the 1880's something more important than diamonds was discovered—gold. In 1886 the world's richest gold field, the Witwatersrand, was opened up in the Transvaal. Thousands of miners and traders, mostly British, poured in. The town of Johannesburg on 'the Rand' grew more than thirty times in size, from under three thousand in 1886 to over 100,000 ten years later. This flood of unwelcome foreigners, or 'uitlanders', some of them with great financial power and world-wide business connections, made a grave problem for the two Boer republics.

They were not free of other problems, by any means. Both had suffered from costly native wars, and the restless, disorganized Transvaal from civil war as well. The Transvaal's internal troubles, plus the danger of revived Zulu power, had led it to accept British overlordship in 1877. But when British forces had defeated the Zulus in a hard-fought conflict, the Transvaal sought independence again, and won a brief clash against a small body of British troops at Majuba Hill in 1881. Britain then yielded to the Transvaal's demand. Her main aim still was not to enlarge her empire but to prevent the Boers causing a general native uprising in South Africa. Both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State were resentful of Britain, and, moreover, they had gained a dangerously false idea after Majuba Hill that they could bring her to terms by threatening war.

But now there were people arising in Britain and British South Africa who were eager to expand the British Empire, and were willing to take strong action to do so. In Britain, Joseph Chamberlain, Colonial Secretary in the 1890's, was one of these, and Chamberlain listened to the bold advice of empire-builders in South Africa: wealthy business men with great plans for developing backward regions, or mining magnates with big investments in the Boer republics. And foremost among these empire-builders was Cecil Rhodes.

Rhodes was one of the men who had sky-rocketted to power

The Commonwealth in Africa

with the diamond and gold discoveries in South Africa. His career was amazing. At sixteen he had come to Africa from England, in poor health and without money. Yet at Kimberley he had made a fortune—not by discovering diamonds, but by working hard for others and saving his wages to buy shares in successful mines, then using the returns to buy more shares, until he had become enormously wealthy, and had built up a diamond combine that controlled the diamond business throughout the world. At twenty, already a millionaire, he returned to England to go through Oxford University. From this experience there finally sprang the world-famed Rhodes scholarships, as Rhodes in his will left the bulk of his fortune to establish scholarships for talented young men in the British Dominions and the United States to pursue their studies at Oxford.

On his return to South Africa, Rhodes went on to become Prime Minister of Cape Colony. He invested heavily in the gold fields of the Rand, and through his British South Africa Company he built a whole new empire north of the Transvaal in the vast re-



THE STORY OF SOUTH AFRICA

gion now known in his honour as Rhodesia. Until his death in 1902, Rhodes was almost the symbol of the best and the worst in the empire-builders. His ideals were high, and he sincerely believed that the British empire offered more freedom and civilization than any other state in the world. But at the same time, believing this, he could not put up with opposition from those who felt otherwise. Dreaming of an 'all-red' Cape-to-Cairo belt of British territory across Africa, he would not be blocked by 'backward' Boer republics that stood in his way.

On the other side, however, loomed the granite-like figure of Paul Kruger, president of the Transvaal in the 1890's. He in his turn symbolized the best and the worst of the Boer character. He deeply loved the liberty of his people, and sought with all his strength to save their free, healthy life from the corruption of cities and great wealth. Yet he was hard, narrow and stubborn, and he finally led his people into a hopeless war to drive the British out of Africa and raise a huge Boer empire on the continent.

Inspired by Kruger, the Transvaal began to make life as difficult as possible for the foreigners in its midst. It laid extremely heavy taxes on the uitlanders and refused them rights of citizenship. This placed the uitlanders in the position of producing most of the wealth of the now-rich Transvaal, paying for its government, forming a majority of its people, yet having not even the right to protest.

This harsh Boer policy, of denying equal rights to a great and increasing number of inhabitants, was in sharp contrast to the British policy towards colonies in South Africa. Cape Colony, still the largest and most advanced state in all South Africa, had gained full responsible government in 1872. Here not only did British and Boers share the fullest rights to vote and govern themselves in friendly co-operation, but natives too could vote; while the 'Cape Coloureds', a people of mixed European, Negro, and Asiatic origins, had an especially well-protected position. Natal did not gain responsible government till 1893, because in

the main it was still populated by primitive native tribes; but even here the natives were far better off under their own tribal governments on reservations than in the Boer republics, where they had no civil rights at all.

Seeing these things, the uitlanders in the Transvaal began to agitate for reform, which was steadily refused by Kruger and his government. But now Rhodes sought to back up the uitlanders with a military raid into the Transvaal. This Jameson Raid, so called because it was led by a Dr. Jameson, was a dismal failure. It ended Rhodes' career in politics and helped Kruger greatly, because many Boers who had been turning against his stern policies now joined him. The Orange Free State and the Transvaal moved closer together. Moreover, Joseph Chamberlain was believed to have known of the Raid, and so Britain was brought directly into the rising storm. When the British government supported the uitlanders, who were mainly British subjects, in their demands for fair treatment, the Boers quickly armed, convinced that war alone would silence Britain and leave them free to deal with uitlanders.

Both sides were rapidly going too far to turn back. Kruger and the Boers made the final mistake, however, when in 1899 they attacked Cape Colony and Natal. The war that followed really surprised both sides: the Boers because they discovered Britain would not give way so easily; the British because they found no small frontier war on their hands but a long and difficult struggle that involved not only large numbers of troops from Britain but volunteer forces from Canada, Australia and New Zealand. It ended, as was inevitable, with the defeat of the two republics by the world empire. But the end came in 1902 only after the brave and seasoned Boer 'commandos' (that well-known term originated here) had been worn down by the sheer weight of British forces. The Orange Free State and Transvaal were added to the British empire, and their English-speaking inhabitants were thus assured of equal rights.

Many people in Britain had been unhappy about this South

African or Boer War. Certainly there had been a tragic lack of understanding on both sides. Fortunately it brought better things in its wake. The defeated Boer states were freely given British aid in repairing the destruction of war and then, only a few years later, in 1906-7, they were even granted full responsible government. This wise and generous policy showed that Britain regretted the mistakes which had been made, and it cleared the way for better relations between British and Dutch in South Africa. The Afrikaners in Cape Colony had not entered the war, and now Afrikaners everywhere were growing ready to work with their English-speaking neighbours. A new day of hope had dawned for South Africa.

(d) **South Africa in the Twentieth Century.** So successfully were the wounds of war healed over that the moment came at last to realize a long cherished dream: the union of the states of South Africa. Kruger and Rhodes, though their plans had been so different, had each had that dream. There had also been earlier efforts, but hostility between Boers and British had always blocked them. Now there was better understanding and Natal, Cape Colony, the Transvaal and the Orange River had all become self-governing British colonies. It was possible to proceed with union and to form a British Dominion much as Canada and Australia had already done. So, when all four colonies had agreed on a new system of government, an Act of the British Parliament brought the Union of South Africa into being in 1910.

South Africa did not adopt a federal system like those of Australia and Canada, but rather a 'legislative union', in which the powers are all given to one central government. The four colonies—or provinces as they now were called—were given their own provincial councils, but these had only limited powers lent to them by the Union Parliament, and were entirely under its control. The new central government followed the British parliamentary model with the cabinet system and two houses of parliament.

South Africa had two remarkable leaders in these years, both of whom had fought against the British in the Boer War, General

Botha and General Smuts. The older, General Botha, became the first prime minister of the new Union. Only four years after the war ended he had become prime minister of the Transvaal when it was granted responsible government. Britain's wise policy at that time convinced Botha and Smuts that full self-government in a fair empire would give South Africa all she could wish. Smuts later became one of the most important founders of the Commonwealth. Educated at Oxford before the Boer War, but a South African through and through, Smuts understood both the British and his own people. For fifty years he was in public life, and he gained a reputation in many countries as a world statesman. Few careers in the twentieth century have been more interesting or worthy of admiration.

When the First World War broke out, Botha and Smuts led their young country through its first severe test. It is not surprising that when Britain and Germany went to war some of the Boers seized the opportunity to revolt, hoping for German aid to gain their independence. After all, they had for many years regarded Britain as a foe and had not long before been fighting her. What is surprising is that the uprising was so weak. The great majority of the Boers had plainly accepted the Union. The revolt was readily put down, and South African troops then went on to seize South West Africa and Tanganyika in East Africa from their German masters. In short, British South Africans and Afrikaners worked well together, and the young Union came through its time of trial with flying colours.

After the war South Africa, like Canada, was in the forefront in seeking the full rights of nationhood for the Dominions of the British Empire. It was natural that these two countries should lead the way. With their large non-English-speaking populations of Dutch or French ancestry, who did not have the same close ties of blood and tradition with Britain, they were more prepared to press their own national points of view than were the wholly English-speaking Australia or New Zealand. Before the war ended, Smuts was prime minister of South Africa, and he and

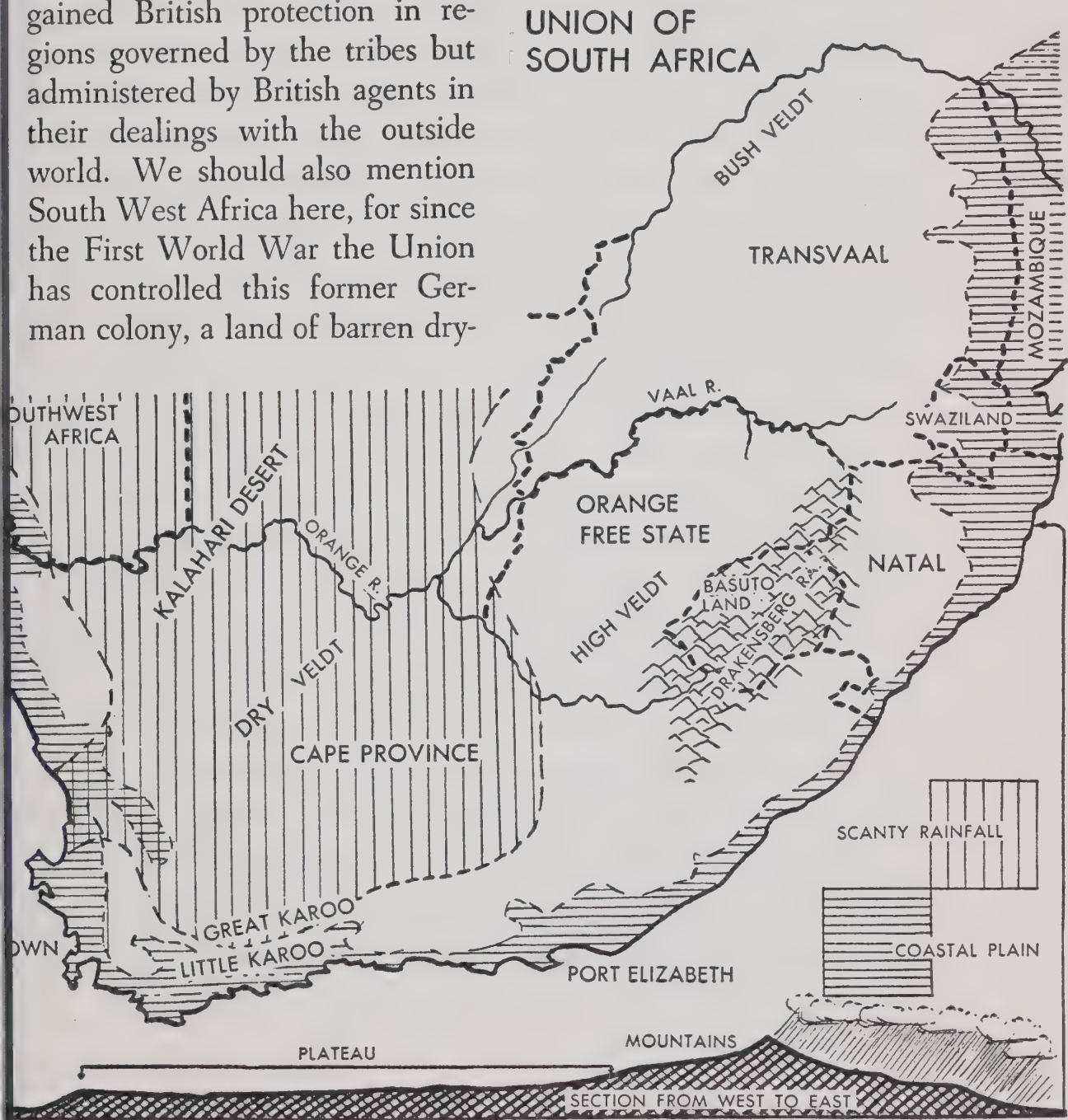
Premier Borden of Canada worked closely together in the first steps which were taken to create the Commonwealth.

Between the two World Wars, South Africa went even further than Canada in stressing her nationalism. This was no doubt because the Afrikaner group, not the English-speaking, was in the majority, and there were many Boers who still had no love for Britain, even though they had accepted the Union. The two principal political parties were therefore the United Party, led by Smuts, and the Nationalist Party, led by General Hertzog. Smuts' United Party was made up of English-speaking South Africans and moderate Afrikaners who wished to see the two groups work together. Hertzog's Nationalist Party was strongest in the country regions, where Boer farmers living in isolation still remembered their troubles with Britain and idealized the little Boer republics of former days. Hertzog's party was still not as extreme as some small Afrikaner groups and he was able to hold power for many of the years between the wars.

When the Second World War broke out, the Union, because of its divisions, was severely tested once more. But again the strength of those who wanted to keep English-speaking and Afrikaans-speaking groups together was shown; Smuts and the United Party came into power in 1939 and held office for nearly ten years. The Nationalists made an attempt to keep South Africa neutral but this was defeated, and under Smuts' wise guidance South Africa played a notable part in the war effort of the Commonwealth in the African and Italian campaigns. More than that, during the war, South African industry underwent a rapid development, in order to supply the Union's troops with arms and equipment and to replace civilian goods that could no longer be brought in easily by sea from British factories. This helped to balance South Africa's too-great dependence on gold mining, which had made her rich, but had provided only a shaky foundation for the nation's life and work. Post-war South Africa still had serious problems but in a little over a century she had come a long way indeed. Let us look at her land and people today.

2. South Africa Today

(a) **The South African Setting.** Today the Union of South Africa is a country of some twelve million people, of whom two and a half million are of European origin. In area, it is comparable to Quebec, Canada's biggest province, and also has within its boundaries the native states of Basutoland and Swaziland, which are not subject to the Union government. They are British protectorates dating from the time when groups of native tribes, retreating from the on-marching Boers, sought and gained British protection in regions governed by the tribes but administered by British agents in their dealings with the outside world. We should also mention South West Africa here, for since the First World War the Union has controlled this former German colony, a land of barren dry-



ness. Next to it lies the native protectorate of Bechuanaland, also large and arid. It is not under Union control but deserves mention to round out a picture of the southern part of Africa.

The whole southern part of the continent consists of a high plateau rimmed by a narrow coastal plain. From the coast the land rises in great steps, called 'karoos' in Cape Province, till the broad central plateau is reached. This high-plains region is, in general, the country of the veldt; though there are different kinds of veldt—for instance, 'dry veldt' or near desert, 'high veldt', the most grassy part, and 'bush veldt', towards the more tropical north. The edge of the great central plateau is highest on its southeastern side, where it rises in the frowning Drakensberg range, or 'Dragon Mountains'.

If we made a trip across South Africa from east to west, we would first climb from the warm, wet forests and plantations of coastal Natal to the grassy slopes of the Drakensbergs; and, once across their heights, would find ourselves on the broad grasslands of the high veldt. Going west from here we would see the grass of the dry veldt getting thinner and thinner until at last the arid, stony Kalahari desert was reached. Descending again to the plain on the west coast, we could still find it almost empty desert, unless we went to the district around Cape Town itself, where groves of trees, orchards and grain fields show that here at least there is rainfall.

This picture, of course, is the result partly of surface features and partly of climate. South Africa lies in the sub-tropical regions—the Tropic of Capricorn runs across the northern part of the Transvaal—and it might roughly be compared in position to northern Mexico on our own continent. Accordingly, its climate is generally sunny and warm, although somewhat moderated in parts of the interior by the altitude. The prevailing winds that bring the rain are the southern trade winds, which blow westward off the Indian ocean. These winds drop much of their moisture in crossing the high Drakensbergs, and so the eastern coasts of Natal have a warm, wet climate. On the other side of the mountains, the winds grow drier and hotter the farther west they go, until finally desert conditions are reached. Only around Cape Town, which is far

enough south to have a mild Mediterranean type of climate and receives winter rain from winds blowing off the Atlantic, is there any real degree of farming on the hot, arid, western side of South Africa.

Few great rivers run through South Africa, and so the land was not opened up by movement along waterways as was the case in Canada, for example, with the St. Lawrence. Indeed, the main rivers generally run east and west in draining out to the coast. Thus they lay across the path of settlers advancing up from the Cape of Good Hope. But because they were shallow and full of fords, or 'drifts' (the very reason that they were not good water highways), they could easily be crossed. Moreover, the open veldt offered no barriers to the Boers' horses and oxen. Therefore land communications by wagon train, and later by railway, were not too hard to establish. The main rivers—the Orange and its branch, the Vaal—were more important in the dry interior as a source of water supply than as a transportation system.

You can see from all this why South Africa developed first as a cattle- and sheep-ranching country, except in a few favoured regions, and why so much of it is thinly populated. If, indeed, it had not discovered and developed its rich mineral resources, its growth would have been far less than it has been. With that in mind, let us look more closely at the various regions of South Africa.

(b) Regions and Products. We may describe the most important regions of South Africa as: (i) the western coastal plain; (ii) the karoos that lie behind; (iii) the veldt in the interior; and (iv) the eastern coastlands. The first two lie in Cape Province, the veldt includes the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, and the last region covers Natal. The western coast consists of a dry desert that runs north into South West Africa, except for the fertile corner of Cape Province around Cape Town that not only raises fine grain, but also excellent grapes, peaches, apricots, and pears for export to Britain. South African canned fruit from Cape Province, indeed, is often found on the Canadian grocer's shelves.

Cape Town, Port Elizabeth and East London are the three big port cities of this coastal region, the first being the seat of the

Union Parliament, and an important industrial city of nearly half a million inhabitants, as well as a leading world seaport. It is a beautiful city, too, with the flat top of Table Mountain towering above it—often spread with a white cloud as a 'tablecloth'. Moving inland from Cape Town and the fruit and grain districts, we reach the hot dry steps of the karoos, where flocks of hardy sheep and goats are kept, the latter producing fine mohair wool, a typical product of the region. Ostrich-farming also is practised here.

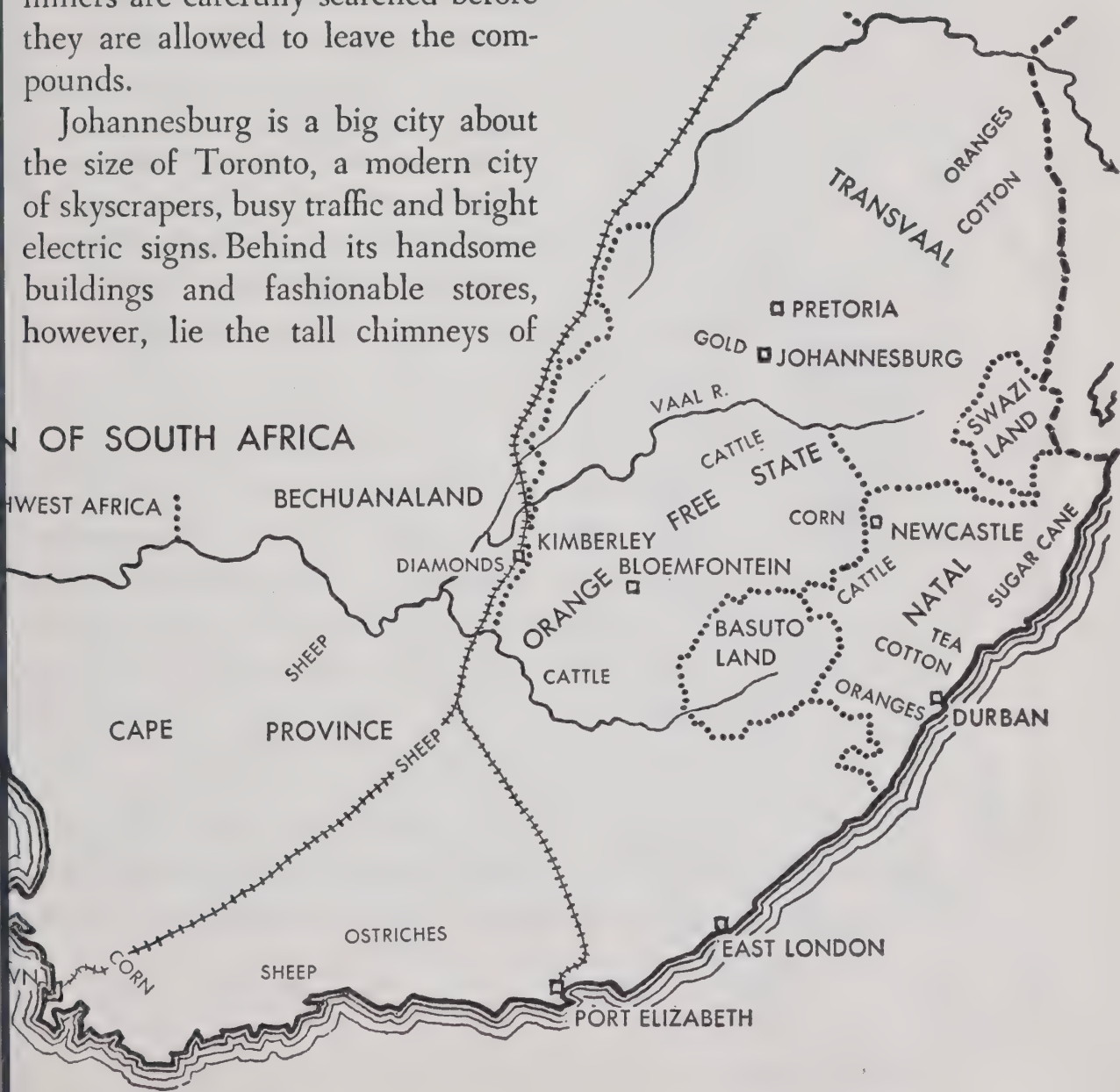
On the veldt beyond, the herds of sheep and cattle grow in number as we move eastward into better watered country. Here cattle are not raised for hides alone but finer, fatter animals are grown both for meat and for dairy products. Furthermore, in better watered districts a great deal of corn is produced, both to feed the stock and to supply the staple food for the native labourers. They grind the corn—called mealies—to make a kind of porridge. This along with beans, squash and melons provides their chief food.

The farms or ranches of the veldt are often two square miles in size, and even bigger in the scantily watered parts where the animals must range wider to find sufficient grazing. Thus large numbers of natives are employed by the Boer owners of these great ranches to watch over the herds. They are usually Bantu people, descendants of the once mighty Kaffirs or Zulus. The remnants of the original Bushmen and Hottentot peoples live in the great Kalahari desert to the west. The former are dying out, but the latter still manage to herd cattle for themselves in parts of the desert where some grass grows.

On the veldt, Bloemfontein is the chief city of the Orange Free State, and the centre for a large stock-raising area. Pretoria is the capital of the Transvaal, and the seat of the Union's government—for, although the Parliament meets in Cape Town, the government offices are located in Pretoria. But the greatest city of the veldt, and of all the union, is Johannesburg, the gold capital of the world. And this brings us to mining, on which so much of the life of South Africa depends.

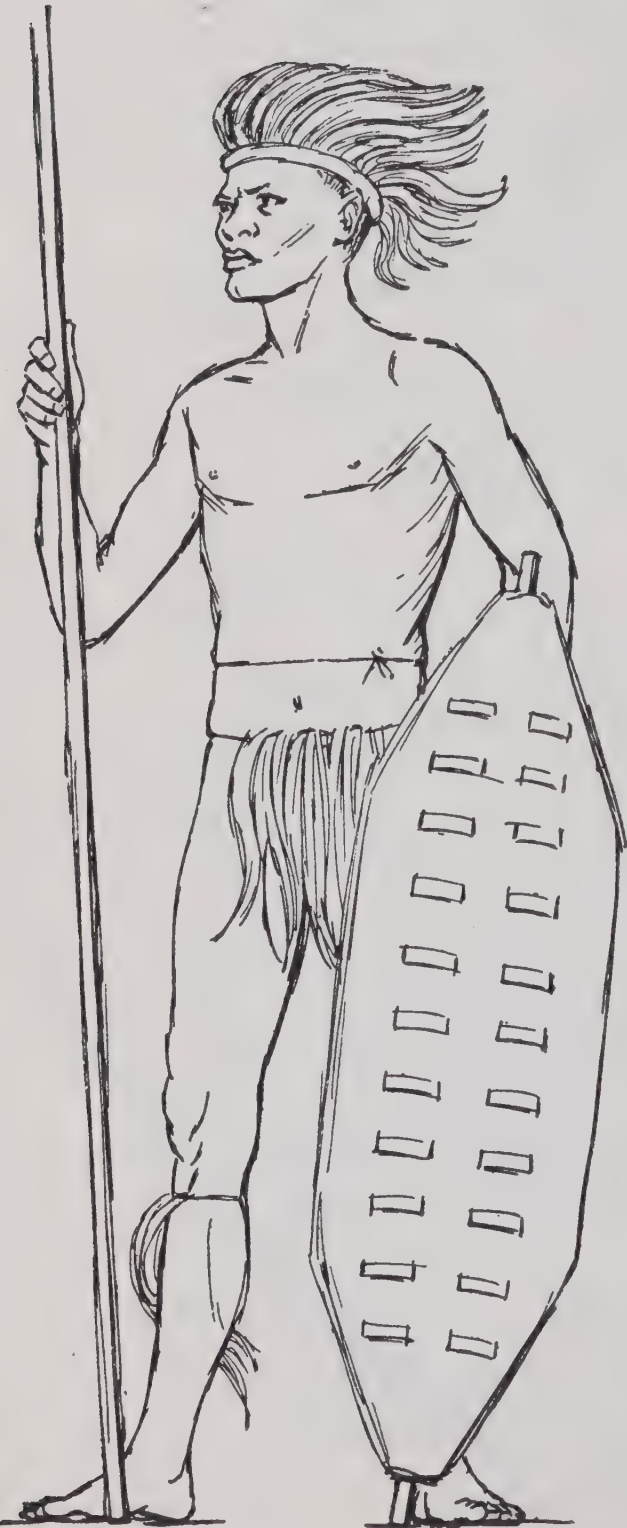
The main gold deposits occur along a long ridge ('Witwatersrand' means 'White Waters Ridge') near Johannesburg, in hard sandstone beds or reefs. Deep shafts are sunk into the reefs and the gold is extracted by crushing and chemically treating the rock that is brought up. The mining is done by more than 100,000 natives, who are bound by contract to work in the mines for six months. During this time they must live in large iron huts behind barbed-wire fences in 'compounds', and may not leave the compound until their contract is up, though the company provides recreation for them there. The same system is followed in the diamond mines that produce nine-tenths of the world's supply. At Kimberley, near the edge of the Orange Free State, the diamond miners are carefully searched before they are allowed to leave the compounds.

Johannesburg is a big city about the size of Toronto, a modern city of skyscrapers, busy traffic and bright electric signs. Behind its handsome buildings and fashionable stores, however, lie the tall chimneys of



the mines, the constant din of the crushing mills that dot the veldt for miles in every direction, and the drab, penned-in life of the miners in the corrugated iron huts. All these things produce 'Jo-burg's' wealth, and give the Union one-third of the world's yearly output of gold—or three times as much as Canada's.

Eastward from the veldt country, where the Drakensbergs rise to ten thousand foot peaks, the native state of Basutoland lies locked in the mountains, its tribes scratching out a bare living from the high rocky uplands. But over the ranges lie the fertile eastern coastlands of Natal. As we go down to the coast, we pass, first, good cattle-pasturing country, then fine corn-growing districts, and finally reach the lush plantations of the hot, wet plain, where sugar-cane, tea, cotton and oranges all grow in abundance. Many of these plantations are worked by Indians, who came originally for short periods from India, but who have settled in numbers in Natal to form a large and increasingly important element of its population. The products of the eastern coastlands move out to the world through Durban, third city of the Union, whose trade is actually greater than Cape Town's. Durban, where tropical trees flame into bloom along the streets, where the warm blue waters of the Indian Ocean break on silvery beaches, is a year-



A ZULU WARRIOR

round vacation paradise as well as a busy port—and a fine place to leave our survey of the regions of South Africa.

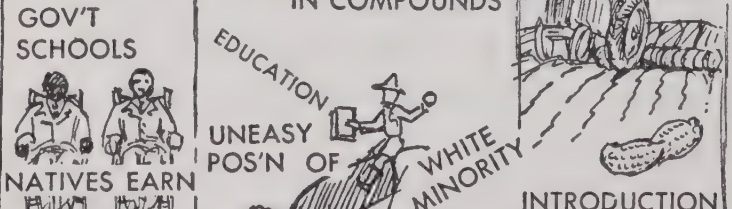
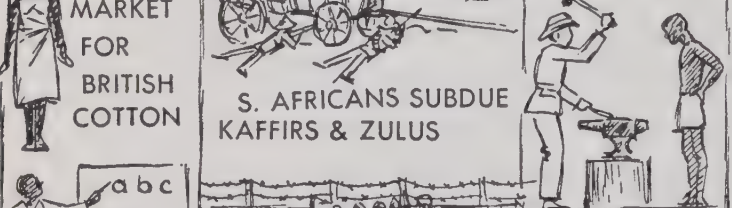
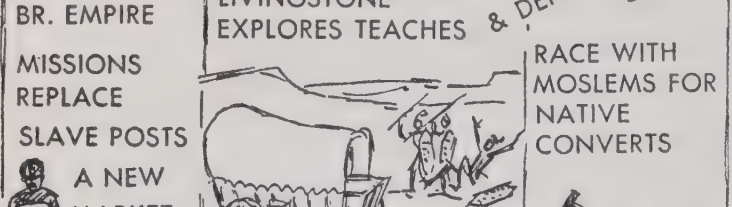
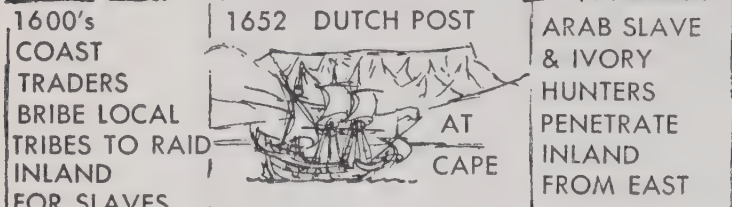
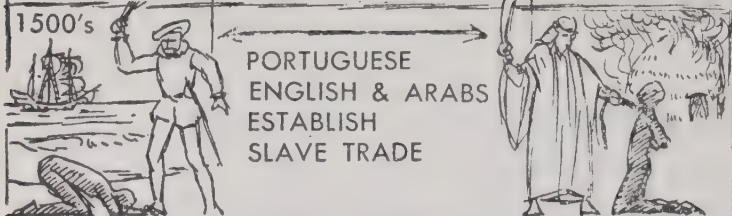
(c) **The Problem of Limited Resources.** Gold and diamonds have made South Africa a wealthy nation. Wool, hides, fruit, wine, and sugar are important in her trade; but if she had to rely on these agricultural products alone, with her sharply limited amount of farming land, her position would be extremely difficult. Gold is a product whose value is much affected by changes in world prices, and it has been fortunate for the Union of South Africa that the world price of gold has stayed high for some years. If the price collapsed, the gold would not buy things to eat, and there is no very large need for it in any industry. Diamonds, similarly, have a rather artificial value, though some are needed for extremely hard cutting tools in industry and for oil-well drills. Yet their price is high largely because they are rare objects of beauty, and the chief diamond producers try to see that not too many of them come on the world market. Gold and diamonds then, are not a very sure foundation for a nation's wealth.

More than that, though gold and diamonds can be sold for goods that South Africa needs, they are 'wasting resources'. They will not last forever. And they do not supply a good basis for the development of industry. Coal and iron ore, on the other hand, can provide the materials for steel-making, ship building and other big industries employing many people, and producing goods vitally necessary to the modern world. Coal and iron may also be used up in time, but as in Britain's case, the industry built upon them may still do business by importing them when needed.

Hence the need to develop other resources and build up industry is vital in South Africa. Coal is mined around Newcastle in Natal and there are deposits in the Transvaal. Yet coal and iron, in general, have not come readily to hand. The picture is not all dark, however. The needs of the Second World War, which caused a notable increase in industry at Port Elizabeth and elsewhere, did lead to a greater production of coal and iron. The copper and iron deposits of Rhodesia to the north are being developed, and

AFRICA'S UPHILL ROAD FROM SLAVERY

W. AFRICA SOUTH AFRICA EAST AFRICA



may be effectively linked with mills and factories in the Union. There is hydro-electric power to be developed in the mountains. Yet much will have to be done before the 'gold-poor' Union overcomes its basic problem of limited and unbalanced resources. Nevertheless, this is a problem of the future. At present South Africa is thriving on its gold fields.

(d) **The Problem of Native Relations.** In recent years relations between the white and native peoples have become by far the most pressing problem in South Africa. Earlier troubles, as we have seen, arose largely between the two white groups, although no doubt their differences on questions of native policy increased their quarrels. But today the points of friction between English and Afrikaans-speaking South Africans are less important than the relations of the whole white population with the negro and coloured people of the Union.

In general, both British South Africans and Afrikan-

ers have agreed on a policy of keeping control over the huge native majority in the Union, for they have felt it would be dangerous to grant an equal position to these largely uneducated and primitive peoples. If the old Boer readiness to enslave and plunder native races has gone, there are few, even among British South Africans, who would argue that the white minority should pull down all barriers and let themselves be swallowed up in a vast sea of only partly civilized peoples. Thus a number of laws, broadly supported in white South Africa, have kept the natives from equal rights in politics, prevented them from entering favoured trades or professions, and kept them separate or 'segregated' from the white South Africans in many ways.

This matter of unequal rights and racial segregation touches more than the negro population. Also affected are the Indians in Natal and the 'coloureds', the people of mixed blood who live mainly in Cape Province. The Europeans in Natal, fearing growing competition from the rising Indian group, have denied them equal rights as citizens, and have limited the places where they may live. The Indians, many of whom are well educated and prosperous, of course resent this, and it has not helped relations between South Africa and India in the Commonwealth. Similarly, the coloureds, who once had equal rights with Europeans at the Cape, have of late been restricted as much as the Indians. They too are naturally full of bitterness.

To a large extent, this more restrictive treatment of all non-Europeans is the work of the government of Dr. Malan, a more extreme Afrikaner nationalist than Hertzog had been. Malan replaced Smuts in power in 1948. One side of Dr. Malan's rather 'old-Boer' type of nationalism was a belief in keeping non-Europeans in a rigidly inferior position. His government, therefore, passed a series of sweeping laws to carry out a policy of 'apartheid', or the strictest segregation of negro and coloured peoples from the whites.

A basic reason for the apartheid policy is simply the Europeans' growing awareness of how utterly they depend on the coloured

racers for labour in South Africa, and how small a group they are on a continent whose vast negro multitudes are only now beginning to awake and stir. Some of the natives have also advanced far enough in education and skill to compete with European South Africans, and this has increased the fear of the white minority that their privileged position may not last.

Apartheid has meant that natives must live on reservations in the country, or in special native areas in the cities, which they may not leave without permission. They cannot travel without a permit, and in every way they are prevented from mingling with Europeans. On the other hand, Europeans must not mingle with them, and may not enter native areas without permission, or they in their turn will be punished. This hard-and-fast separation is not the whole policy, however. At the same time, better farming methods are being taught to the natives on the reservations, much money is being spent to buy them land, provide them with their own schools, universities and hospitals, and a series of laws has been enacted to protect the living and working conditions of the natives in the mines. The cost of these welfare measures is paid mostly by white tax-payers. And the ideal, at least, of apartheid, is that the native peoples, as well as the white, shall be helped along their own path to civilization.

Dr. Malan's policy has been bitterly criticized by his white opponents, both English-speaking and Afrikaner. Most of them wish to see the position of the white minority protected, but they believe that such an extreme policy is by no means necessary. They believe that a policy based on co-operation and goodwill is possible, and that the apartheid policy will only stir up violence, race hatred, and even rebellion which could make things far worse than they were before. They also point out that a policy of racial intolerance draws criticism from other nations which South Africa cannot afford to ignore. South Africa's policy has been described in the United Nations as "symptoms of a disease that could spread across national borders and stir racial disorder wherever it went". It is also a backward step for the Union of South Africa to estab-

lish increased restrictions when native peoples, in British colonies elsewhere in Africa, are gaining more freedom and moving toward self-government.

South Africa suffered a severe loss in 1948 when Jan Hendrik Hofmeyr died. Hofmeyr, like Smuts, his leader, was a South African who understood his own people thoroughly, and like Smuts he was a man of great tolerance and broad vision. While facing facts, Hofmeyr said, South Africa should not forget the "value of human personality as something independent of race or colour". With her critical racial problems South Africa could ill afford to lose such a leader.

In conclusion, we should at least try to understand how difficult is South Africa's racial problem. Canada and South Africa have many similarities: the city life of Johannesburg is, in many ways, like that of Toronto, or even more like that of Montreal, where also two main languages are heard. The cattle-farms on the veldt might remind us of the ranches of Alberta, or the orchard valleys near Cape Town of the Okanagan in British Columbia, or the gold mines of the Transvaal of hard-rock mining in Northern Ontario. Yet there is one great difference between South African and Canadian life: that of South Africa is all built on native labour. Imagine a Canada where the English and French-speaking groups were a small minority, dwelling among millions, let us say, of North American Indians far more primitive than our Indians of today; where these same tribesmen performed all the basic work of the country; and where our neighbours across the border were not people very much like ourselves but were, instead, a hundred and fifty million even more primitive Indians!

Such a strange imaginary picture may help us not only to understand South Africa's racial problem, but to recognize how far this land of great problems has come, despite its difficulties. For the Union of South Africa is still the most modern and highly developed country on the African continent, modern in its fine buildings, roads, railways, and airways, in its schools and universities, and in its system of social legislation. It may yet lead

the rest of Africa to civilization. And here the Union's contacts with the other members of the Commonwealth, with their viewpoints and their sympathetic understanding, could well be a valuable help.

3. The British Empire in Africa

While the Union of South Africa is the only Commonwealth member nation in Africa there are other important lands of the British empire on the continent, some of which are coming close to Commonwealth membership and all of which face similar problems of raising primitive peoples to civilization before they can really become successful self-governing nations. We may best discuss these British African possessions in three main groups: Rhodesia, which is on the verge of Commonwealth membership; East Africa, which is less developed; and West Africa, which is advancing toward self-government.

(a) **Rhodesia.** Rhodesia is a huge piece of the interior uplands of Africa, lying between the Transvaal and the Central-African Congo basin. It is now divided into Northern and Southern Rhodesia along the course of the Zambesi, one of Africa's greatest rivers, which flows from the heart of the continent out to the Indian Ocean. On its journey to the sea, the Zambesi rushes over the magnificent Victoria Falls in Rhodesia, which are three times the height of Niagara. Because of the altitude of the table-lands of Rhodesia, the climate is surprisingly cool and invigorating for the tropics, and Southern Rhodesia, therefore, has received a considerable amount of white settlement. Rainfall there is ample, and the soil fertile.

Today Southern Rhodesia raises fine beef cattle, tobacco, and corn on its rich soil. The last two are also grown in warmer Northern Rhodesia, as well as cotton and coffee, but here the terrible tsetse fly, that spreads deadly disease among animals,

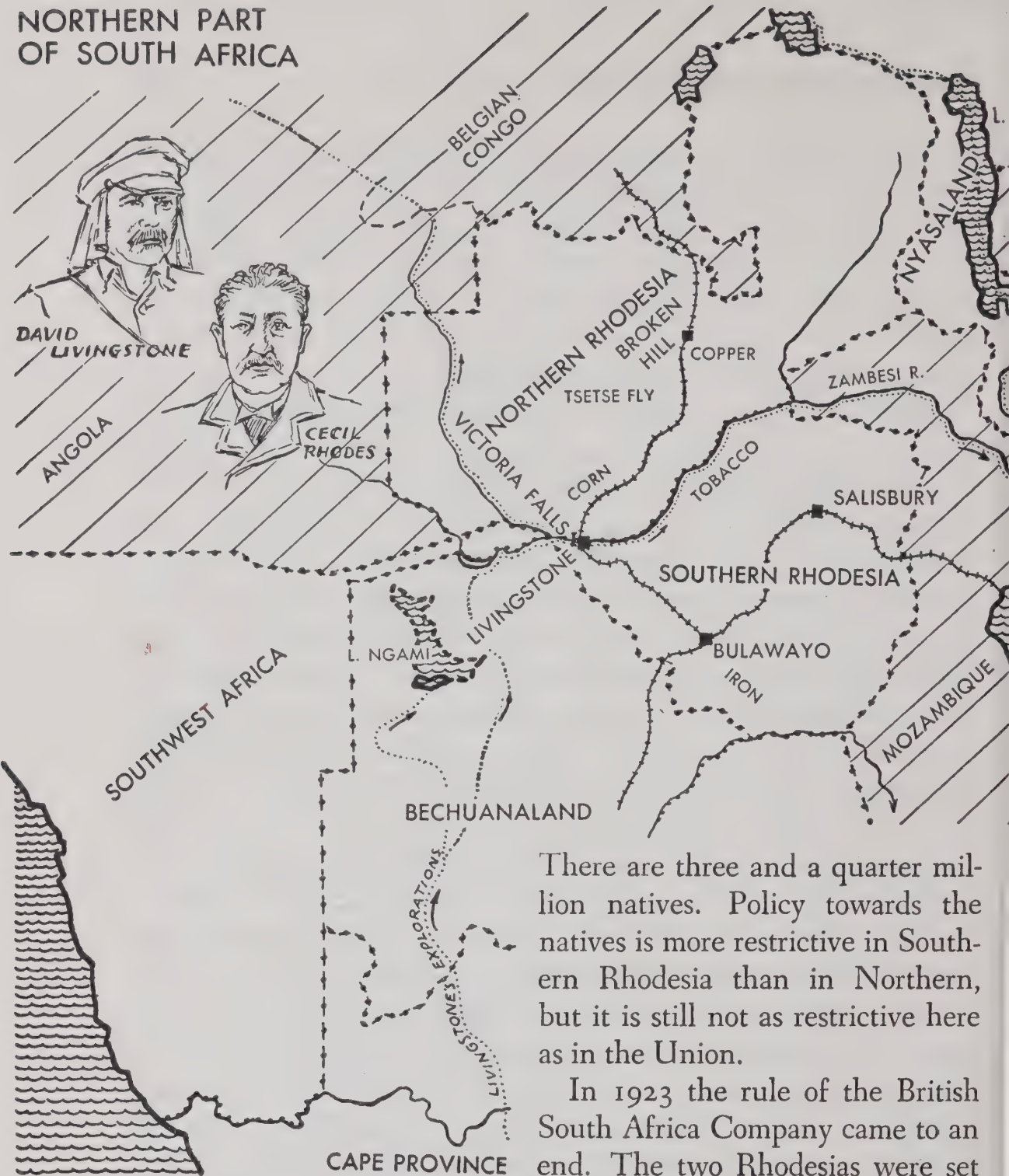
prevents much cattle-raising. Southern Rhodesia has rich asbestos mines and is developing iron fields and a surprising amount of new industry. Northern Rhodesia produces copper and other minerals, and promises to produce far more. These Rhodesian lands, indeed, have a bright future. Southern Rhodesia in particular is one of the last few areas in the world well suited to extensive development by white settlement.

Rhodesia was unexplored country until the gallant missionary-explorer, David Livingstone, penetrated it in the mid-nineteenth century. He travelled the entire 2,200 mile length of the Zambesi and was the first white man to gaze on Victoria Falls. But it was Cecil Rhodes who gained the land for Britain, and began its settlement through the British South Africa Company. Rhodesia then was largely inhabited by natives who had been driven out of the Transvaal by the Boer trekkers, but in time the Boers would have moved on into it. To prevent this, and to gain trading rights for the British South Africa Company which he had organized, Rhodes journeyed to the native ruler, King Lobengula and bought sole trading rights from him.

In 1890 he sent 'the Pioneer Column' of 1,500 soldier-settlers into the new country, where they founded the present city of Salisbury, capital of Southern Rhodesia. When trouble broke out with the natives and Lobengula made war, Rhodes came all the way from London to settle it. With only three friends he travelled straight to Lobengula's fortress in the heart of hostile territory. Amazed at this bravery, or foolhardiness, the natives agreed to terms. Rhodes' most daring venture had succeeded. Before his death he saw another of his dearest plans succeed when a railway was built to link Rhodesia with the Cape—part now of the great 'Cape to Cairo' route across Africa.

Thereafter the new colony grew steadily, and relations between whites and natives were generally good. Negroes were not segregated, they gained the right to vote, and were given good schools. There are now about 122,000 Europeans, chiefly of British ancestry in Rhodesia, about 100,000 of them in the southern half.

NORTHERN PART OF SOUTH AFRICA



There are three and a quarter million natives. Policy towards the natives is more restrictive in Southern Rhodesia than in Northern, but it is still not as restrictive here as in the Union.

In 1923 the rule of the British South Africa Company came to an end. The two Rhodesias were set up, and Southern Rhodesia was given its own parliament and responsible government. The less advanced Northern Rhodesia became a Crown Colony, which means that it is controlled by a governor sent from Britain, who is, however, assisted in government by local representatives. Southern Rhodesia, however, has almost complete self-government, except in her relations with outside countries. Her Prime Minister

attends Commonwealth Conferences, and it is likely that in a few years she will become a fully-fledged member nation. It is probable, besides, that she will enter a federal union with Northern Rhodesia and neighbouring Nyasaland, a British colony almost wholly native in population, in order to form a great Central African federation in the Commonwealth.

(b) **British East Africa.** Mention of Nyasaland, a long, narrow, interior territory beside Lake Nyasa, takes us to the East African group of British colonies, for, next to Nyasaland, Tanganyika Territory spreads along the eastern coast, and above Tanganyika is Kenya, through which the equator runs. Uganda then lies inland again, behind Kenya, on the shores of Lake Victoria, the second largest lake in the world. These eastern colonies contain more than twenty million native Africans. The few Europeans among them are mostly government officials, except in Kenya, where broad healthful highlands again make white settlement possible.

Britain traded with East Africa long before she sought possessions there, and the unhealthy coastlands did not seem very desirable to her in any case. But the work of her missionaries and men of commerce was hampered by bloody native wars and Arab slave trading, defeating every effort to bring civilization. To establish order and end the slave trade, Britain took control of the East African lands in the later nineteenth century. Tanganyika, however, became German territory first. After the First World War it was given to Britain to govern as a trust for the League of Nations, and later for the United Nations. The building of railways led to the opening up of the interior, and when it was realized that here was fertile and healthy territory, white settlers began to come from Britain to Kenya.

The natives of this East African region vary from Europeanized workers in the leading towns like Nairobi to near-naked savages in the most distant parts. White-robed Arabs throng the streets of the coastal cities, and Indians as well as Europeans have become successful farmers on the good lands of upland Kenya. On the

whole, however, except in parts of Kenya, the old tribal ways of Africa flourish everywhere. The native farmers and herders of the tribes have improved their lot with the aid of the white man's farming methods, while still maintaining their old village life. As yet the natives of East Africa have not made much progress towards self-government. But their health, education, and standard of living is rising, and in time self-government too will come.

British East Africa consists basically of a hot narrow coastal plain and the cooler uplands beyond. On the equatorial plain grow bananas, coconuts, rice and yams. Ebony and teak, and cloves from the romantic nearby island of Zanzibar, are other



"I ALWAYS WANTED TO BE AN AFRICAN BIG GAME HUNTER!"

valuable products. In the interior, where most of the people live, the regular equatorial rains and the cool nights help produce the cotton of Uganda, the coffee of Kenya, and the hemp of Tanganyika Territory. The grassy uplands, dotted with clumps of trees, are as well the home of every kind of big game—'nature's zoo', they have been called. Here engineers on the railway must look out not for cows but for elephants on the track, and the farmer must worry not about dogs or foxes, but lions!

There are not many mineral resources known as yet in East Africa, except in Tanganyika, where diamonds have been discovered. There is little industry as well. Still, there are great possibilities in this vast untapped region, which above all needs

money to develop it. The British government tried to do so after the Second World War, by investing in a large-scale plan to develop peanut-growing for vegetable oil and margarine. The plan ran into unexpected difficulties, but still brought sufficient new land into cultivation to show clearly what might be done in East Africa by the introduction of machinery, money, and scientific farming on a large scale.

(c) **British West Africa.** Nigeria, Gold Coast, Sierra Leone and Gambia are the British possessions in West Africa, all bordering on the Atlantic coasts, though separated from each other by bands of French territory. Except for a handful of government officials, their thirty million inhabitants are almost entirely native. The climate is generally very hot and not suitable to Europeans. Tropical diseases have been a grave problem in West Africa. Today advances in tropical medicine have made possible amazing improvements in West African life, but the region largely remains unsuitable for the white man.

West Africa consists first of the low, hot coastal plain, often full of tangled mangrove swamps, behind which lies a belt of dense wet jungle. Beyond this again a broad stretch of tropical grassland sweeps northward, growing dryer and dryer, until the desert sands of the great Sahara are reached. In the tropical rain forest the natives grow two crops yearly of yams, bananas, rice, and corn in little clearings which they hack from the forest; but weeds grow so rapidly and the land so quickly becomes infertile



that the natives must soon make new clearings. On the grasslands they grow millet, pumpkins and peanuts, and also pasture cattle.

Europeans first came to West Africa because of the once-great slave trade. From the sixteenth century on, a number of European powers, Britain included, established posts on the coast to trade in ivory and gold—but above all in ‘black ivory’, slaves for the rising plantations of the Americas. Native chieftains and Arab slave traders were glad to supply the living merchandise, and this inhuman business flourished until the nineteenth century when Britain at last took the lead in putting down the slave traffic. Then, having abolished slavery in her own domains in 1833, she used her posts on the West African coast, once founded to trade for slaves, as bases in wiping out the slave traffic among the native tribes of the region.

This war on the slavers, plus war on tropical disease, led gradually to the expansion of British authority inland. Here savagery and bloodshed were replaced by order and peaceful farming. Railways were built, and cities grew up. British West Africa became a land of small native farms and plantations, growing a large amount of cotton, peanuts, rice, and rubber for the world market—and above all, most of the world’s supply of cocoa. Many minerals have been found, but only in scattered quantities. And lack of coal, so far, has limited the development of industry. Still, the valuable West African food crops make possible a rising standard of living for the peoples of the region. Under British guidance, moreover, they are beginning to learn the art of self-government.

This is the case in Nigeria and the Gold Coast, the two biggest British West African possessions. Here there are large cities like Lagos and Accra, with English or native-language newspapers, with good schools, outstanding technical and agricultural colleges, and rising native universities. Thus the increase of education and trained leadership among West Africans has enabled them to move farther towards self-government than any other purely native people in the British African colonies.

Nigeria and the Gold Coast, therefore, now elect their own



MAT MAKING IS A FLOURISHING INDUSTRY IN NIGERIA

representatives in native parliaments or assemblies, that work with the British governors. In time these assemblies will take complete control, and so full responsible government will be established. This is in line with Britain's declared policy towards her colonial empire, which seeks to raise the living standards, education, and generally the civilization, of native peoples until they are able to take over their own government to the fullest degree. This is the process by which a large part of the present free Commonwealth has been built up, and by which, even now, new nations are rising out of the British colonial empire.

4. The Commonwealth and Africa

Britain has other interests in Africa not yet mentioned. There is the largely desert colony of British So-

maliland, at the entrance to the Red Sea. There is the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan in North Africa, where Britain shares with Egypt control of the great grasslands of the Upper Nile. In Egypt itself, Britain controls the vital Canal Zone, through which the Suez Canal carries much of the traffic of the world between the lands of Asia and those of the West. Then, on the Mediterranean coast, Britain after the Second World War was given an important part in guiding the former Italian colony of Libya to independent nationhood. And Libya, of course, was a land where British and Commonwealth troops had fought and sacrificed greatly during the Second World War.

But in general, British interests in North Africa are not as extensive and enduring as in the rest of the continent. And there is no British colony in North Africa that is likely to rise to Commonwealth membership. For her part, Britain has said that the Sudan may advance to independence, as some of its native leaders demand, but Egypt wants to make the region wholly an Egyptian possession. As for the Suez Canal Zone, this is indeed a major British concern, since the Suez Red Sea route is an essential link in the world's seaways, quite as important as the Panama Canal that links the traffic of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Yet Britain has made clear that she controls the Suez Canal Zone as an international trust, in the interests of the free flow of world trade. She has, indeed, sought to have the Zone taken over by the United Nations. Until this is done Britain controls the Canal as an international responsibility, not as a private possession.

In fact, Britain more and more looks on her colonial empire in Africa as a responsibility and a trust for development. She collects no taxes from it. Instead British taxes go to develop Africa; as, for example, through the half-billion dollar Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, which she established after the Second World War. This will build African dams for irrigation and hydro-electric power, like the great structures British engineers have raised across the Nile in Egypt; it will teach natives new farming

methods, work to control the malaria mosquito and the tsetse fly, and spread education among the illiterate masses of Africa.

Hence the Commonwealth has the promise of a noble future in Africa. Here, under British guidance, the wasted millions of manpower, the undeveloped resources, and the ignorant untrained human minds may be shaped into a whole new world of prosperous, civilized, self-respecting peoples. And above all, the gradual peaceful extension of freedom, which has been the very secret of the Commonwealth's success, in time should bring these peoples to nationhood as members of our great world association. The Commonwealth in Africa may well be on the threshold of a wonderful new age.

Learn by Doing

1. Four pupils report briefly to the class on the coming of the Dutch, the Huguenots and the English to South Africa, along with some information about the various native tribes. (1, a)
2. Divide the class into two sections. One half justifies the stand taken by the British which led to the Great Trek of the Boers; the other discusses the Boer viewpoint. (1, b)
3. Conduct an imaginary interview with Cecil Rhodes, discussing particularly his work in Africa. (1, c)
4. Prepare a short speech which Kruger might have made justifying his attempt to deny citizenship rights to the English in the Transvaal. (1, c)
5. Conduct a panel discussion on the topic of 'The Race Problem in South Africa'. (2, d)
6. Make a sand-table display showing the main features and products of Rhodesia today. (3, a)
7. Imagine that you are a tourist in British East Africa. Write a letter home outlining some of the most interesting things you have seen. (3, b)
8. Make an asbestos fibre map of British West Africa showing the main surface and vegetation areas. (3, c)

Facts to Know

1. Why was the first colony started at the Cape? (1, a)
2. How did Britain acquire South Africa? (1, a)
3. In spite of the early bitterness the four provinces joined to form the Union of South Africa in 1910. How was this achieved? (1, d)
4. In what ways did General Smuts show his loyalty to the Commonwealth? (1, d)
5. Explain the way in which the surface and climate have affected the products of the three main areas of South Africa. (2, a and b)
6. On a map mark the chief cities of the Union of South Africa. In a sentence or two tell why each became important. (2, b)
7. Why is British East Africa not particularly suited to European settlement? (3, b)
8. List the chief products produced by British West Africa. (3, c)

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UNIT FOURTEEN

THE COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES OF ASIA

1. *The Rise and Fall of Ancient India*
2. *The Story of Modern India*
3. *India and Pakistan Today*
4. *The Dominion of Ceylon*
5. *The Asian Commonwealth Countries in the World Today*

Across the broad Indian Ocean from the continent of Africa lie the strange and splendid Commonwealth countries of Asia: Ceylon, a richly beautiful tropic island, and India and Pakistan, lands of amazing contrasts, where gorgeous wealth displays its silks and jewels in the midst of poverty and famine, and magnificent temples and palaces soar high above crude mud huts or the bamboo shelters of the jungle. Ceylon, although it lies so close to the southern tip of India, has long had a life of its own, and so we will deal with it separately in later pages. Present-day India and Pakistan, however, only became two distinct nations in 1947. Thus for all the long years before that date we may treat them together under the general name of 'India',

the fabled sub-continent—the 'Light of Asia' sought by so many conquerors, from Alexander the Great to the empire-builders of Britain. We would be right in judging that these Indian lands are very unlike Canada. For one thing, there is their huge population. The Indian peoples today form more than three-quarters of the total population of the Commonwealth, and Canada's fourteen million look very few indeed beside the more than four hundred million of India and Pakistan. With this vast number of people pressing on a limited living space, the standard of living is generally very low: at the opposite end of the scale from Canada's. There is, moreover, no sizeable European group in the midst of the native Indian population, such as we found even in largely 'native' South Africa.

Yet we cannot class the Commonwealth countries of Asia with the wholly native lands we looked at in Africa. For the native African peoples are uncivilized in their background, while the Indian peoples have one of the world's oldest civilizations behind them. India was the home of a noble and glittering culture when most of our own ancestors were still roaming the forests of Europe dressed in animal skins. In short, if Canada is in general a new country, India is very old.

Still, the very contrast between India and Canada, which is another example of the wonderful variety of the Commonwealth, means that we can learn much from this land of ancient civilization, and in return have many modern gifts to offer it that will help improve the lot of its people. The Commonwealth bond between Canada and India is highly valuable therefore. And, different as they may be, they do have certain connections that can serve to strengthen the tie between them.

To a large extent, India has looked to the example of Canada in her advance first to Dominion status within the British Empire and then to complete nationhood in the Commonwealth. In the later years of British rule in India, Britain sometimes applied lessons learned from Canada's pioneering in the art of responsible government. Furthermore, leading British statesmen in India had

sometimes served in Canada too: Lord Elgin, whose name is forever linked with the coming of responsible government in Canada, was one of these.

Hence, it is not too surprising that the machinery of central and provincial government as it finally developed in India under British rule was modelled to a considerable extent on that of Canada. And Indians learning to work this machinery for themselves, and striving towards self-government, naturally paid full heed to Canada's success in this regard. A bond of mutual respect and sympathy developed between the leaders of the rising Indian peoples and those of the young nation of the west.

Today that bond is being further strengthened, as Indian students come to Canadian universities to study the science, medicine and engineering that will help their peoples, while Canadian missionaries, doctors and experts of many kinds go to aid in India. Western expert advice and assistance, of course, goes largely to the Indian lands from Britain and the United States. Yet Canada has her own part to play in broadening the important bridge between the West and these rising nations of Asia. As Canadians, we too can share in this great effort, and our first task is to try to understand India by learning something of her fascinating past.

1. The Rise and Fall of Ancient India

(a) The Founding of Indian Civilization.

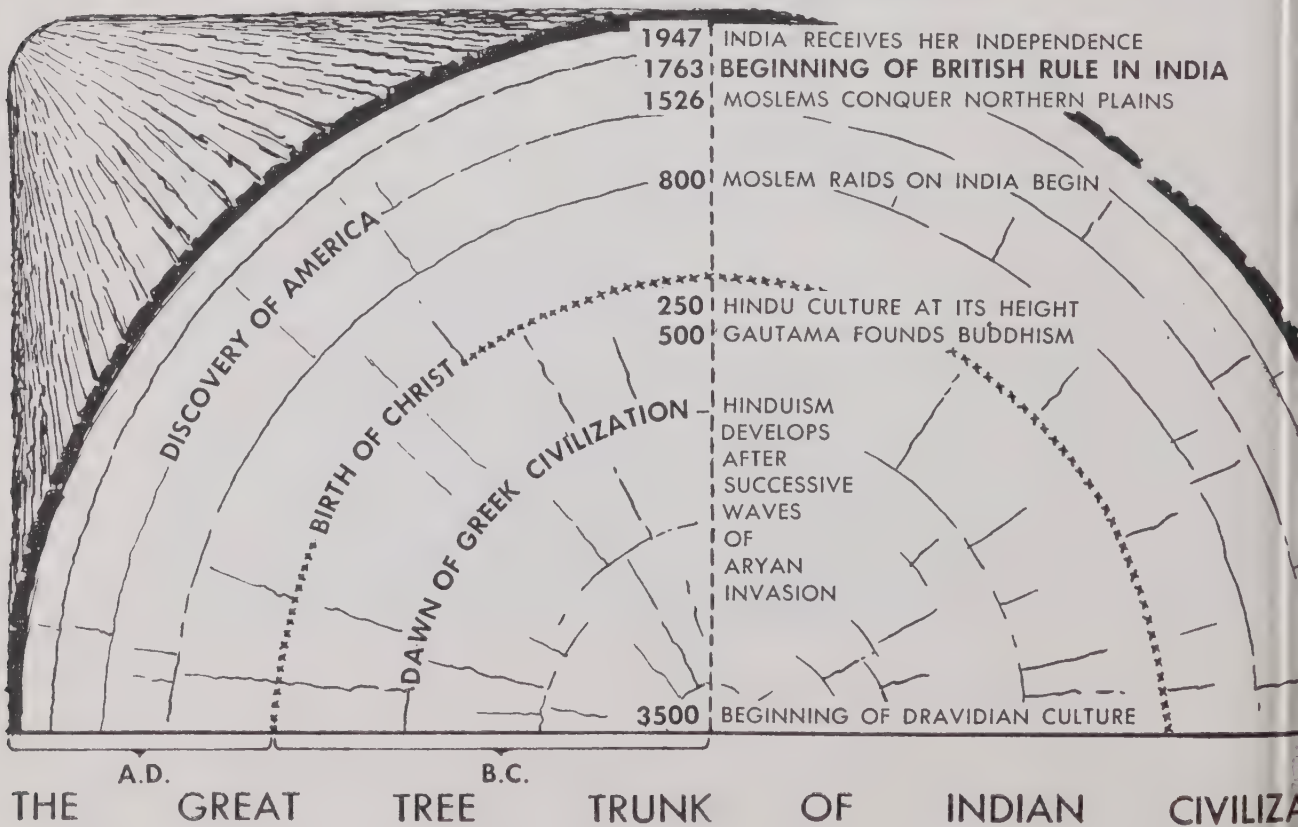
Part of understanding India lies in realizing that, while the period since British rule began is of great importance in India's story, it is only a fraction of the whole of Indian history. British rule in India only goes back to about 1760, and European trading ships first reached Indian ports only about the year 1500. Yet the history of Indian civilization stretches back beyond 1500 for at least four thousand years more. The whole period of India's

contact with the West is thus but the last thin outside layer on the thick tree-trunk of Indian civilization.

Accordingly, many of the ways of Indian life that we find strange were established centuries ago. They may still seem more important to Indians than 'recent' things introduced since India began to have connections with Britain. The Indian people are very proud of their age-old heritage. Indeed, we should remember, in talking of the 'backwardness' of life in present-day India, that civilization is not only to be measured by counting automobiles and super-markets: Indians might even regard us as rather backward and uncivilized because we sometimes think more of mere possessions like refrigerators and cars than of the whole meaning of our life in this world, and how it can be made more worthwhile and satisfying.

At any rate, when we look back to find the beginnings of India, we find that more than three thousand years before the birth of Christ a flourishing civilization had developed in the valley of the Indus, one of India's great rivers. Its people built three-storey brick houses, wore silk and cotton, and fashioned gold and silver jewellery. This civilization, however, disappeared during a long

A COMPARISON OF EAST AND WEST

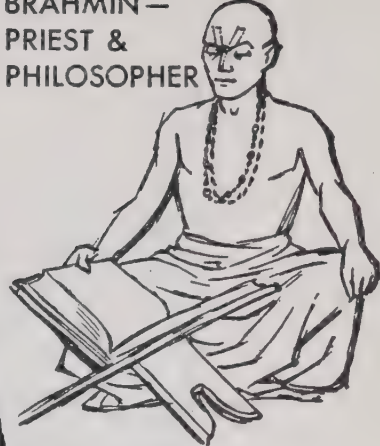


age of Aryan invasions that followed. The tall fair-skinned Aryan invaders from the north were related in language to the peoples that built the great civilizations of Greece and Rome. They drove the darker-skinned Dravidians, the earlier inhabitants of India, southward before them, or forced them to take refuge in the hilly and jungle regions; although in time there was also much inter-marriage between the two peoples.

In these early struggles, the modern people of India began to take form. Today in the north of the sub-continent they are still tall and quite fair in complexion. In the south they tend to be short and dark, but there are many degrees between. The southern Dravidian peoples, having been forced on to inferior ground, rather slipped behind, and the fertile basins of the Indus and Ganges rivers held by the Aryan conquerors, became and remained the chief centres of Indian civilization. In the wild lands of hill and jungle, Dravidian tribes that had fallen from civilization or had never reached it remained close to savagery. Even today in these areas we find the most primitive peoples in India.

THE HINDU CASTE SYSTEM

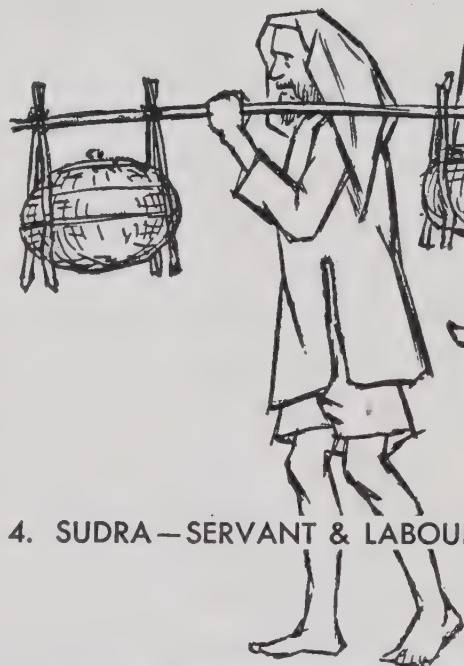
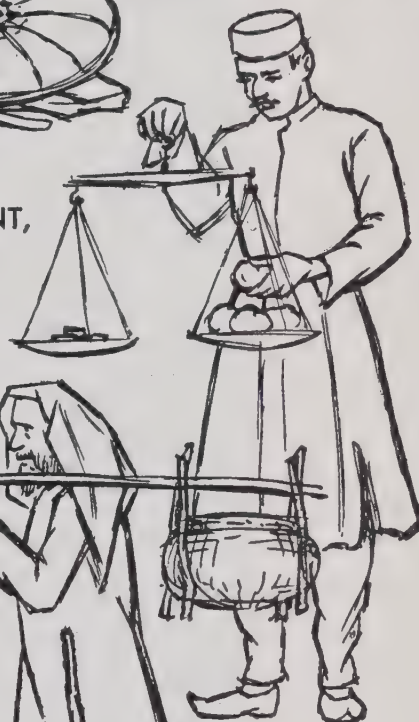
1. BRAHMIN —
PRIEST &
PHILOSOPHER



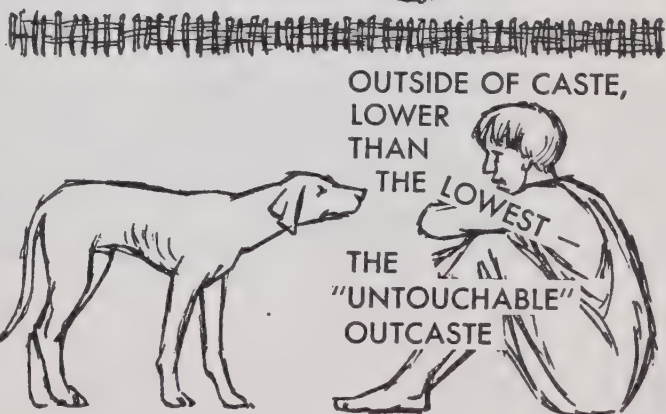
2. KSHATRIYA —
WARRIOR & RULER



3. VAISYA —
MERCHANT,
ARTISAN,
FARMER



4. SUDRA — SERVANT & LABOURER



OUTSIDE OF CASTE,
LOWER
THAN
THE LOWEST

THE
"UNTOUCHABLE"
OUTCASTE

After the Aryan invasions the lasting outlines of Indian civilization began to appear. Learning and the arts advanced, and the great body of sacred Indian literature known as the Veda was built up. Above all, the 'caste system' was settled on India: the division of society into fixed and unchanging orders or classes of people. The Brahmins formed the highest of these classes. They were the priests of religion, the thinkers, the teachers, who passed on the knowledge of the Veda. Below them, in order, came the warrior caste, the caste of farmers, merchants and craftsmen, and then the serfs, unfree Dravidian workers who had to labour for their Aryan masters. Lowest of all, there grew up in time the 'untouchables' or out-castes, who were not even permitted to come near high-caste Indians.

This caste system was not really unusual in its beginnings. Many other peoples in their earlier history have been similarly divided into definite orders, each with its own set work in the world. Europe in the Middle Ages had its feudal system of warrior-knights and serfs, and knew of three definite orders, priests, nobles and farmers. But Europe outgrew these things, while in India the caste system hardened with the ages and kept each person firmly fixed in the order in which he was born. Perhaps the chief reason for this was that in India the caste system became closely associated with the people's religion.

(b) **Hindus and Moslems.** The religion that arose in ancient India, to become one of the largest in the world today, is known as Hinduism. Built on the teachings of the Veda and steadily added to by Brahmin thinkers, Hinduism made the belief in caste part of religious faith. Otherwise, it believed in one God, but in one who could appear in many different forms—as well as three chief ones—and could be worshipped in many different ways, with a host of idols and mystic ceremonies. At its worst, among primitive Dravidian tribesmen, Hinduism in its many branches could be close to bloodthirsty devil-worship. At its best, among noble-minded Brahmin thinkers, it could be a very high form of religion indeed.

Hinduism also produced an offshoot, Buddhism, which was destined to be another great world religion. Founded by Gautama Buddha (Buddha means 'the Enlightened One') about 500 B.C., it quickly won numerous converts. For many centuries Buddhism was very powerful in India, but gradually it was once more replaced by Hinduism. Today it is a leading faith not in India but in China, Japan, Burma, and most of South East Asia. Hinduism, however, remained so much a part of Indian life that it is usual to speak of 'Hindu civilization' in India, and to refer to the bulk of the peoples who have descended from that civilization today as Hindus.

Hindu civilization gradually extended itself over the Indian sub-continent, though not without many wars and new invasions from the north, including those of the Persians and of the Greeks under Alexander the Great in 326 B.C. The high tide of Hindu civilization probably came during the reign of King Asoka, who mastered and ruled all India except the extreme south about 250 years before the birth of Christ. Asoka turned from war to ways of peace, and built schools, hospitals and great temples. His reign was one of the golden moments in Indian history, when Hindu arts flourished at their best. For many centuries after his death, though Hindu civilization gradually passed its prime, India generally prospered quietly by itself. It also traded with the outside world, eastward to China and Burma, and westward to the lands of the Greeks and to the Roman Empire.

When great Rome collapsed and the western lands fell into a long age of troubles, Hindu India still seemed secure. But then a dangerous new warlike power arose, and after sweeping westward through the old Roman lands in North Africa, it turned eastward to the gates of India. This was the mighty surge of the Moslems, the fierce followers of the new religion of Islam, who believed in one God, Allah, whose Prophet was Mohammed, the founder of Islam. From 800 A.D. onward, invading Moslem armies swept down through the northern mountain passes into the plains of India. Many times they came only to raid and plunder the piled-up

wealth of Indian cities. But as Hindu resistance weakened the Moslems grew determined to stay. They conquered the rich plains of the Indus and Ganges, and founded the Mogul Empire with its capital at the great city of Delhi.

Thus Hindu and Moslem India came to exist side by side. Though the Moslems were the masters, Hindu worship and customs remained strong. Parts of the south were almost unaffected. Akbar, the greatest of the Mogul Emperors, who ruled from 1556 to 1605, even gave Hindus equal rights with Moslems, and for a time his wise and tolerant policies promised to weld the followers of the two faiths into one nation. But it was not to be.

There were many differences between the two religious groups or communities. The Moslems, who came to form close to a quarter of India's population, did not follow the caste system. Their holy writing was the Koran, not the Veda, and they brought their own learning, arts and architecture to India. For example, they built graceful domed mosques, instead of the elaborate, pillared Hindu temples. The most beautiful and famous of these Moslem buildings was the Taj Mahal, a wonder of white marble carved like lace, which was built by the Shah Jehan between 1618 and 1648 as a memorial to his wife.

The Moslem religion was more direct and unadorned, and without the idols and mysteries of Hinduism. But it was just as warmly held, and, though Hindus and Moslems learned to live together, it was always possible that religious passions might bring bloodshed between them. From these deep differences, then, between the two great communities, would spring many of the future problems of India.



(c) **The Coming of Europeans.** As already mentioned, India had had trading connections with western countries even in Greek and Roman times. Indian ships sailed to Egypt, and from there Indian goods were transhipped and resold to the countries of Europe. Also, a thriving caravan traffic carried Indian products overland across the Middle East to the shores of the Mediterranean.

When the Roman Empire collapsed and the western lands sank into the dark ages, Indian goods still continued to trickle into Europe: sometimes by way of the spreading Moslem states, for the Moslem peoples, the Arabs especially, were keen traders as well as fierce fighters. In time, moreover, bold European adventurers themselves travelled the caravan trails through the Middle East to India. And so Europe remained dimly aware of a far-off Indian wonderland, whence came spices literally worth their weight in gold by the time they reached the West, where there were cities far richer and finer than the capitals of Europe, and where rulers were dressed in the finest satins crusted with gems and rode on the backs of strange tusked animals as tall as a house.

As the Middle Ages drew to a close, European countries were developing new strength and self-confidence. Soon they would be ready to take to the oceans and seek their own contacts with the fabled Indian land of wonders. India's old trade had now fallen into the hands of the Arabs, and by land the Turks and Egyptians controlled the caravan routes. They sold the products of India to Italian merchants for marketing in Europe. The high prices caused by all these middlemen brought some of the rising European nations to decide to search out India for themselves. By this time their ships and seamanship were advanced enough to be equal to the task.

In this way began the great expansion of Europe overseas, as the search for a sea route to the East not only led Europeans eastward around Africa but turned them westward to discover a whole unknown New World lying between Europe and the Orient. The Portuguese, of course, first found the way to India, for in 1498 Vasco da Gama reached there after voyaging around Africa.



A EUROPEAN AT THE COURT OF THE GREAT MOGUL

Portuguese traders soon set up warehouses in Indian ports, and for nearly a century Portugal controlled India's trade with Europe.

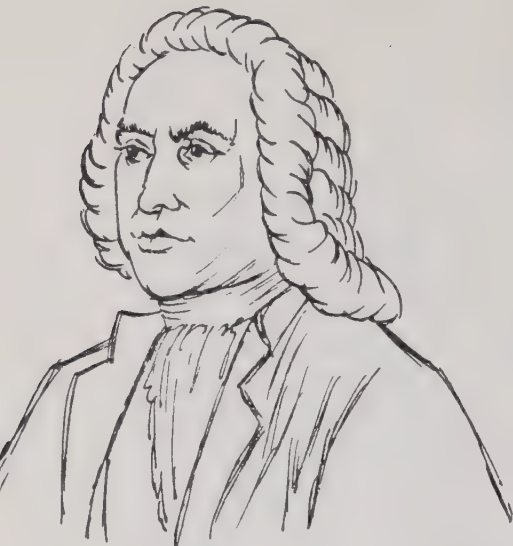
But other countries became interested in the wealth to be gained in the Indian trade and were not willing to let Portugal keep a monopoly. After 1600, as we have already seen in Unit Eight, the Dutch, the English, and later the French all formed powerful East Indian trading companies and established them-

selves in cities around the coasts of India. The Portuguese fought desperately to hold their lead. But Portugal was declining in power in Europe, and soon her rivals took over most of her trade with India. In the long run as we know, the English East India Company, backed by the steady growth of English sea power, gained the strongest position among the European trading companies.

Throughout this early period of direct western contact with India, Indian civilization was not greatly affected by the coming of Europeans. These new invaders by sea, from the south, were not like the old land invaders from the north. They came in small numbers to trade peacefully, and not to conquer. They were granted rights to set up their warehouses or 'factories' in the port towns—sometimes tolerantly, sometimes almost scornfully by the not-too-interested rulers of India. So long, then, as the country remained united under the mighty Mogul Empire the coming of the Europeans did not seem to matter much to India.

The great Akbar's successors were not as wise as he, and they led the Empire into ruin by once more turning Moslems and Hindus against each other. Rebellions broke out, and though the Emperor still ruled at Delhi, many of the princes who had governed parts of India in his name became their own masters, like the powerful Nabobs of Bengal or the wealthy Nizam of Hyderabad. With all this disorder and rivalry in India, Europeans found themselves in a very different position.

(d) How British Power Grew in India. By 1707, the trading interests of the Portuguese and Dutch in India had dwindled so much that the French and British East India Companies were left facing each other. As banditry and violence spread, the companies found that they had to protect their property, and they began raising their own troops ('sepoys') under French and British officers. So the trading companies became military powers, and soon they were drawn into the quarrels that were going on among the warring Indian princes. The companies made treaties and agreements, and then as they got more and more into Indian



DUPLEIX

plots and politics, they finally came into open conflict with each other. By 1750, the clever leader of the French Company in India, Dupleix, was even hoping to drive the British right out of India by constructing great alliances against them. Thus, in the Far East, the Seven Years' War of 1756-63 became a struggle to decide whether the French or British should hold the place of power in India.

But thanks to the daring and military skill of Robert Clive, plus British sea power that cut off aid from the French, the war in India ended with Britain completely the master.

More than that, the war began the building of Britain's own empire in India. This came after an attack by the Nabob of Bengal on Calcutta, the principal base of the British company in eastern India. Clive quickly turned to Bengal from the south, where the main struggle with the French and their allies had been going on, and at the Battle of Plassey in 1757 his small, well-trained force of sepoys shattered the Nabob's huge unwieldy army. All Bengal thus fell into British hands. The East India Company now ruled this big, wealthy and populous province in the name of the almost powerless Mogul Emperor at Delhi. In actual fact the Company was the real owner of Bengal.

In this way a tremendously important step had occurred. Britain had not only become the key European power in India; it had also begun to rule large territories there. The East India Company was no longer just a trading company, however wealthy and powerful; it had become a governing power as well. Other areas soon began to come under the Company's rule, and the Company's empire steadily expanded. This was largely because the trouble and turmoil of India still went on outside the Company's territories, and the Company found time after time that, to protect itself, it had to step in and put down these troubles. Where the Company ruled, order and security were established, but neigh-

bouring rulers often got into wars, and the Company was drawn into these conflicts, either to defend itself, or because of its Indian allies. Above all, new world-wide conflicts with France during the American Revolution, the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars, also caused large-scale fighting on Indian soil. As a result, by the time the Napoleonic Wars had ended in 1815, British India had expanded



CLIVE

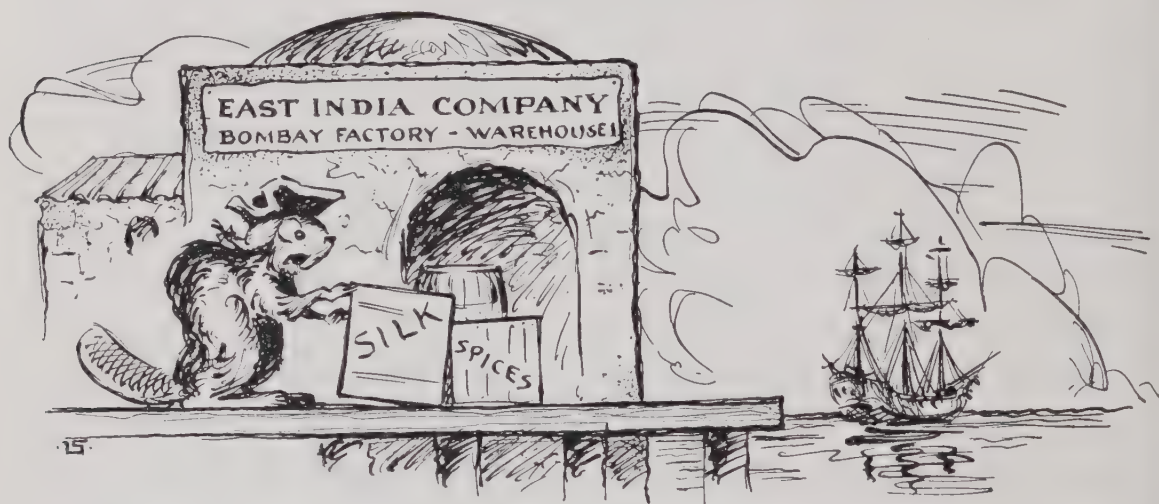
from its old bases of Madras in the south, Bombay in the west, and Calcutta in Bengal, over most of southern India and far up the valley of the Ganges. Besides, the remaining Indian states in the south and the princes of central India had made treaties with the British, giving them the upper hand in nearly two-thirds of the sub-continent. Britain, clearly, was now the number one power in India.

Yet it is plain that there was no definite British plan of conquest in all this. The British East India Company would have been glad to remain a trading company, but India's weakness under the Mogul Empire made this impossible. Warfare and disorder led the East India Company to take over troublesome neighbours one by one, and in this way a trading company came to control a mighty empire. If its rule was foreign to India, at least it was more bearable to the Indian people than that of most of the native rulers themselves. It brought peace, safety, and justice to replace bloodshed, terror and cruelty. More than that, the gradual expansion of British rule unified India as never before, and so made possible the future development of a real Indian nation.

2. The Story of Modern India

(a) **The British Indian Empire.** Britain's holdings in India continued to grow after 1815. In the 1820's

attacks from Burma, southeast of Bengal, led to growth in that direction. In time all Burma was added to Britain's Indian possessions. Then, for about twenty years, expansion came to a stop, as the East India Company sought to bring progress and reform to its existing broad holdings. For example, the terrible custom of *suttee*, the burning of widows alive on their husbands' graves, was done away with, despite Indian disapproval. Thomas Babington Macaulay, the famous English historian, a member of the governor's council, drew up an excellent code of criminal law for India, and worked out a plan for Indian education along English



" I HEAR THEY HAVE A COMPANY LIKE THIS IN CANADA
— BUT THEY TRADE — BEAVER SKINS! "

lines, to teach the Indian people western ideas of law and liberty, and prepare them for a share in their own government.

Yet one of the principal tasks of the Company in India still was to preserve order in its lands and check the attacks of troublesome neighbours. This led to a new period of wars in the 1840's, and to the conquest of most of the northwest. The wars against the Sikhs, the strong military rulers of the Punjab in the north, brought the hardest fighting that the British ever met in India. Afterwards, however, the Sikhs became strong supporters of Britain and furnished some of the finest troops in her Indian Army.

By the 1850's, then, the whole sub-continent had come under

British control, though not all of it was directly a part of British India. There were many native states, some quite large, where Indian princes continued to rule, and the ancient ways of life went unchanged. Kashmir in the north and Hyderabad in the south were two of the biggest of these. But these native governments by treaty accepted British control of their outside relations, and so 'Princely India' was by no means independent.

The 1850's also saw considerable progress in British India. Under the vigorous governor-general, Lord Dalhousie, main roads and telegraph lines were built and railways begun. Yet Dalhousie's very haste for progress caused him to give too little thought to the deeply-rooted Indian feeling for caste. His railways, for instance, made people of different castes travel in the same cars. His opening of government posts to those who could pass examinations let low-caste Indians rise to high positions. Moves of this sort gave the impression that Dalhousie was trying to break up the whole caste system. India was by no means



A FEW OF INDIA'S MILLIONS

ready for that; and, for other reasons too, serious trouble was brewing.

The last straw came when new cartridges greased with animal fat were issued to Indian troops. Forcing Indians to handle them was another unthinking blow at their religious feelings. The Hindu feared that the grease might come from cows, and the cow was sacred to him. The Moslem feared it was from pigs: animals he detested. Both saw this as a British attempt to scorn their deepest beliefs, and so in 1857 Indian sepoy mutinied rather than use the cartridges. The mutiny spread rapidly, since in large parts of India the British had few but Indian troops. Soon a great and bloody revolt was blazing, as Indian leaders came forward with the hope of driving the British out of India and reviving the old Mogul Empire.

This Indian Mutiny was marked by desperate courage on both sides—but also by grim cruelty, for savage massacres by Indian mutineers brought harsh British punishments in return. Within a few months, however, Delhi, the centre of revolt, had been taken, and within a year peace was restored. India had not all revolted, by any means. The southern or Madras army, the Sikhs in the north, and the native princes in general, had all stayed loyal. The Mutiny had mainly affected only Bengal and the upper Ganges valley, and even here the mass of the people had not been concerned. Nevertheless the Mutiny was later remembered by many as a fight to free India from outside control. One of its results, therefore, was to sow the seeds of later Indian nationalism.

Another result of the Mutiny was to end the East India Company's rule, and to put its territories directly under the control of the British government. The Company, of course, had long been acting as the agent of the British government in ruling India and had really ceased to be a private trading firm. It had become more and more just a governing machine. Company government had not been particularly to blame for the Indian Mutiny, but the high cost to Britain of putting the Mutiny down turned new

attention to India. Therefore, in 1858 the out-of-date system of Company rule was replaced by direct British control.

Then, in 1876, the clever British Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, eager to appeal to the rising spirit of imperialism in Britain, proclaimed the glamorous title of 'Empress of India' for Queen Victoria. India was once more called an Empire—but under British rule. This Indian Empire was governed by a British viceroy (a higher title than governor-general) who ruled directly over the provinces of British India and also acted as the overlord of the rulers of Princely India. Under the government of able viceroys like Ripon and Curzon, a great era of peace and progress now began for the Indian peoples.

By the early twentieth century India was almost transformed. British energy, money and skill wove a great network of roads and railways over the country, breaking down the isolation of inland villages, and drawing India together as one unit for the first time in her history. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 had a great effect on India, putting her in much closer contact with the outside world, and permitting far more of her crops to go to distant markets. Tea, which had not even been grown in India before the 1830's, now became a highly valuable export. So did cotton and jute, and to a lesser degree, wheat. These bulky articles indeed became far more important in India's trade than spices and luxury goods, which in the old days had been the only items that were light enough and valuable enough to repay the cost of the long voyage around Africa.

As a result of the growing prosperity, the old unchanging life of India began to alter. Modern industry started to develop in some regions. A prosperous middle class appeared, and education spread amongst it. The British built schools and hospitals. The lot of the humble masses improved, and the constant threat of starvation and famine, present through all the ages, began to lift for them. This was partly because the spreading railways and roads allowed food to be brought into famine stricken areas where formerly people would simply have starved to death. But more



MODERN EDUCATION AGAINST THE ANCIENT BACKGROUND OF INDIA

than that, the British government in India attempted for the first time in Indian history to control famine by setting up government food warehouses and giving out supplies in stricken districts. Gradually a permanent famine-control system was worked out.

Nor was this all. Huge British dam-building and irrigation schemes, particularly in the dry northwest, turned ancient deserts into fertile farmlands and added considerably to India's food supply. Above all, British rule brought peace to the sub-continent. It ended the constant threat of bloodshed and death through fighting. Now there were no more civil wars between native princes, no more great invasions from outside. And in most of India, robbery, violence and crime was more and more brought under control.

This was not the work of a huge and oppressive British army. The highly skilled Indian Army—chiefly Indians led by British senior officers—was small in comparison to the whole population. Its main work lay on the border, along the famous 'North West Frontier', defending the peaceful Indian masses from the wild Afghan peoples of the mountains, who through all the ages before had raided the plains, plundering and slaying as they came. In

particular, it had to watch the storied Khyber Pass, for centuries the gateway to India for invaders from the north. The poems and stories of Rudyard Kipling have well described the colourful life of the Indian Army on the troublesome North West Frontier.

Among the Indian people themselves, an ordinary police force and efficient British justice kept order. British rule brought with it equal law for great and small alike, and courts that could not be corrupted. The Indians came greatly to admire the fairness and honesty of British justice and quickly took to the law themselves. Increasingly Indians became judges and lawyers, carrying out the principles of British justice for their own people. Perhaps this gift of British law was one of the greatest of all that Britain gave India.

Yet it would be wrong to see British rule in India as simply carried on for India's own good. Britain in return was gaining much wealth and power from her control there. Moreover, fair and beneficial as British rule was—far more so than any India had known before—it was still foreign rule. The British did much for India, but they stood apart. They were respected and admired, but seldom loved. Indians some day were going to want to rule themselves, just as the British ruled themselves.

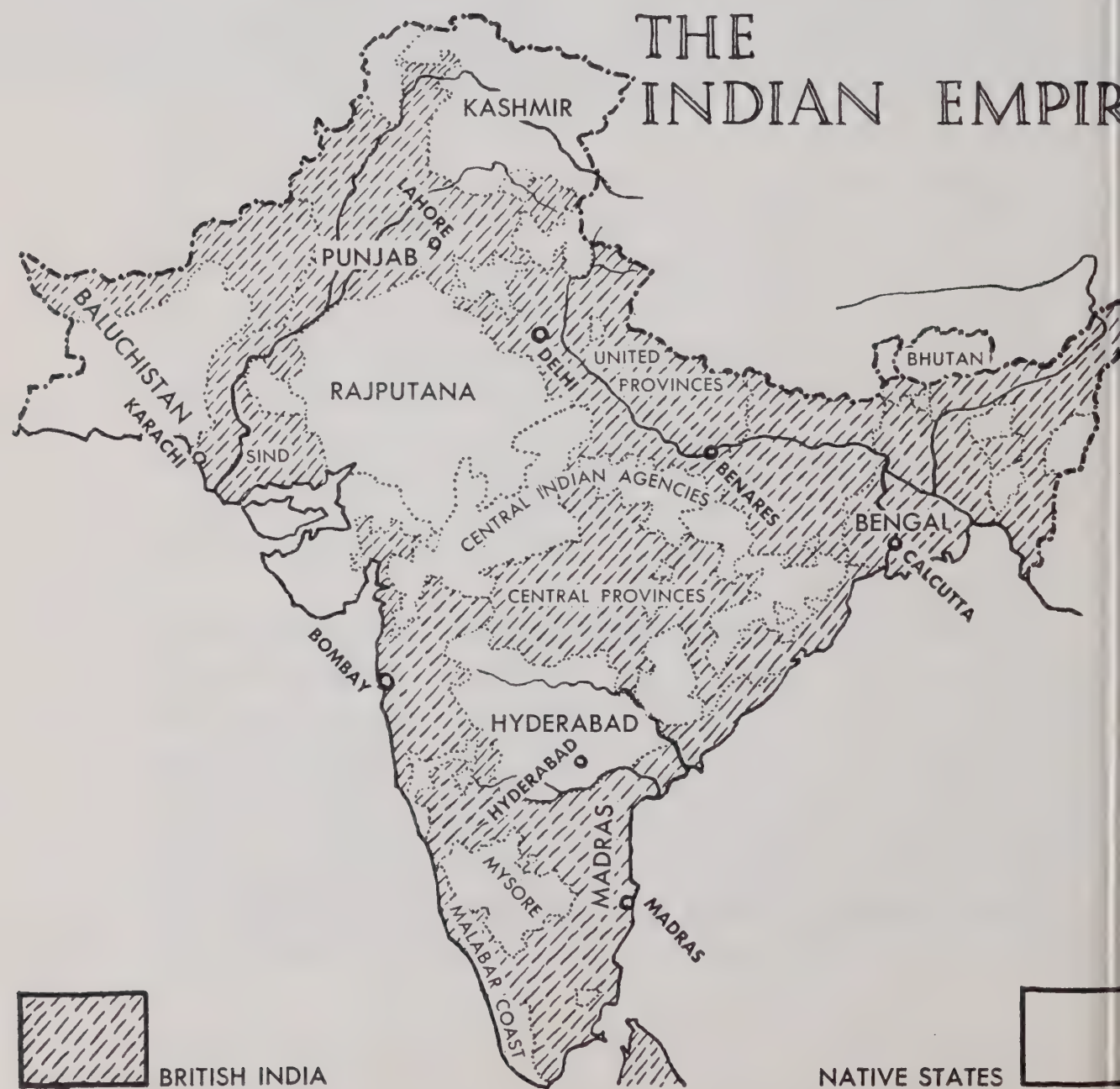
For a long time Indians seemed content merely to be well ruled by the British. Around 1900, Britain's proud and splendid Indian Empire looked as if it might last forever. But the very advances it was bringing to India in security, prosperity and education were awakening the Indian people. Nationalism was stirring as India entered the modern age, and soon there was a growing demand for Indian self-government.

(b) India Gains Full Nationhood. In the later nineteenth century, the growth of prosperity and education in the Indian Empire produced a new group of Indian leaders who were no longer willing to see Britain govern India, however well she did it. These leaders found an excellent way of expressing their discontent through the Indian National Congress. The Congress had been founded by the British in 1885 as a large-scale 'discussion group' (without governing power) in order to encourage an intelligent interest among the peoples of the sub-continent in India's own

affairs. Perhaps it succeeded too well! At any rate, this India-wide body gradually came under the control of forceful men who demanded more and more self-government. Some of them even looked forward to the day of complete Indian independence.

To meet, or at least partly satisfy these growing demands, the British gradually widened the share that Indians had in the government. First, Indians were named to the councils that managed the provinces of British India. Then in 1909 they were given the right of electing members both to the provincial and the central governments. Still these reforms gave Indians only a limited voice in politics, and fell far short of responsible govern-

THE INDIAN EMPIRE



BRITISH INDIA

NATIVE STATES

ment. In 1919, however, largely as a result of India's magnificent part in the First World War, when she raised a million volunteers for the Allied cause, a new set of reforms gave Indians a much greater voice both in the provincial and the central governments. In the provinces a degree of responsible government was even established, since Indian ministers were granted control of many government departments. Nevertheless the British viceroy continued to be the final master of India.

Britain by now was willing to give India more and more self-government, but felt that reforms must not go too fast. This gradual progress, however, did not satisfy India's leaders, and among them was a most remarkable little man who turned out to be one of the greatest figures in the modern world, Mahatma Gandhi. Gandhi, a brilliant man, a wonderful blend of saint, scholar and statesman, had risen to the fore in the Indian National Congress during the First World War. The son of high caste parents, he had studied law in England, and then practised it in South Africa. There he had struggled hard to improve the depressed position of his fellow Indians. When he returned to India he was well known and had a great deal of political experience. And after the war he decided to back up the demands of the Congress for self-government with campaigns of 'civil disobedience'.

This meant that Indians were to refuse to obey the British authorities in almost every way short of violence. They were not to revolt or use force but this method of resistance turned out to be a very powerful weapon. Unfortunately the campaigns of mass disobedience actually let loose a vast turmoil in India, and there were many violent scenes in which large numbers of people were killed or injured. Accordingly, Gandhi



GANDHI

was imprisoned by the authorities for years at a time, because he refused to stop his campaigns.

Gandhi won a tremendous following among the masses of India. They came to love and worship this deeply sincere little man, who would not be turned from his fixed aim of bringing complete national freedom to India. Moreover, he won many followers among the poorest classes of India because, although a high-caste Brahmin, he deeply felt the suffering of the nearly fifty million Indian 'untouchables' and sought to raise them out of their terribly degraded state of untouchability. Even Gandhi's opponents could not doubt his sincerity. His activities at last proved successful enough to lead the British in 1935 to offer a full system of Indian self-government in the provinces, which went into effect. Also an almost complete system of self-government was offered for the central government at Delhi.

Indian leaders could not agree, however, on the central plan. Hence it was not settled when the Second World War broke out, and serious division resulted. Gandhi and the Congress would not offer India's aid, as they had in the war of 1914-18, unless complete Indian self-government was first granted. Britain refused to make so great a change until the life-and-death war was over. So there were new riots and Gandhi went back to prison. On the other hand many Indians were willing to aid in the war, especially since the rapid spread of Japanese power over the Far East threatened the conquest of India itself. This time, indeed, India raised nearly *two* million volunteer troops. They played a great part in reconquering Burma from Japan, and fought magnificently in North Africa, and Italy.

The war had a great effect on India's growth to nationhood, just as the First World War had had in the case of Canada. Britain promised during the war to grant India full self-government when the conflict was over, and made it clear that India might even leave the Commonwealth if she wished. This wise and generous policy did much to remove the anti-British feelings of India's national leaders, like Pandit Nehru, the chief Congress

leader, who was to become India's first Prime Minister. Nehru, a man of great ability and fine education, had been a follower of Gandhi and had himself been in jail during the struggle for independence. But Nehru saw that Britain was in fact helping India toward freedom and self-government in spite of all past difficulties. Thus both in India and in Britain there were leaders anxious to see that when separation came it should be a friendly one. The result was that when the Indian peoples at last gained full independence in 1947 they did so in a spirit of good will toward Britain, and decided to remain in the Commonwealth, although as two separate nations, India and Pakistan. This remarkable decision was greatly helped by the way in which the last British Viceroy of India, Admiral Lord Mountbatten, helped to carry out Britain's policy, and so won the friendship and confidence of India's leaders.

In 1947, then, the Dominion of India, with about three hundred and forty million people, most of them Hindus, and the Dominion of Pakistan, with about seventy-five million Moslem inhabitants, came into existence. Two years later, in 1949, the bigger Dominion moved one stage further, and became a republic. But though the Crown is no longer represented in the Republic (it has a President), India still does accept the Crown as the symbol of Commonwealth unity, and recognizes Queen Elizabeth as Head of the whole great partnership of nations. Hence the presence of a republic in the modern Commonwealth is still another illustration of its flexible and adaptable nature.

(c) How Britain Helped the Growth of Indian Nationhood. Britain's sway over India did so much in itself to lay the foundations of Indian nationhood and to awaken Indian desires for self-government, that it is worth summing up a few of the ways in which British rule aided the rise of Indian nationalism. First of all, by uniting the sub-continent under one strong orderly government, Britain gave its many peoples a chance to think of themselves for the first time as Indian citizens, and not as subjects of many different rulers who were often at war with one another

The spirit of Indian nationalism could thus take form. Next, by providing India with a system of good communications, Britain enabled its parts to get to know one another. Good railways, and an efficient postal system linked all India as never before.

Britain even supplied Indians with a common language, English, to overcome the barrier of a hundred different tongues and dialects, allowing them to talk together. English was taught in the schools and universities and became the language of educated Indians. It was heard at that training centre for nationalism, the Indian National Congress—which was also begun by Britain. Today English is still in wide use in India among political leaders and men of learning. Many still go to study at British universities.

Britain, too, by her rule, taught Indians ideas of freedom and self-government that they had never known before. Further than that, by raising a class educated in western ideas and training them increasingly in the arts of government, she gradually prepared India for democracy and freedom. The great Indian Civil Service showed as much devotion to duty as Britain's Indian Army, and both were more and more staffed with Indians, from the lowest ranks up to the top. Hence Britain built up both a national Indian army and a large well-trained body of Indian officials, and left India a fine tradition of honest, public-spirited government to carry on. Also she gradually schooled Indians in the parliamentary system, so vital to the workings of democracy. Today both Pakistan and the Republic of India govern themselves through parliaments—with prime ministers holding the real reins of power, no less than in Canada or Britain.

Despite all this aid which Britain gave to rising Indian nationhood, however, it would be incorrect simply to see her leading Indians step by step to freedom. Although that freedom finally came, it took a good deal of hard pulling by Indians as well—as we have seen. Many advances towards self-government were only granted by Britain after considerable Indian unrest. Nevertheless the fact remains that she permitted these steps forward where other nations might well have refused them.

Indeed, it seems generally true that the great principles of freedom which were worked out and fought for in Britain have sooner or later made their mark wherever British rule has gone. The precious lessons of British liberty have formed perhaps the greatest gift that Britain has brought to any land she has governed. This was the case in India. In fact, the Indian leaders who won liberty for their land continued to admire and believe in British ideas of free government even while they had to struggle against British power in India. They still admire those ideas today.

(d) Why Did India Divide into Two Nations? To answer this interesting, and indeed important question, we must look again for a moment at India's history. For some time, under Britain's even-handed rule, Moslems and Hindus had seemed to forget their past quarrels. Indeed, in the early stages of the national movement Hindu and Moslem leaders had joined in working towards self-government through the Congress. There seemed every chance that if India reached her goal of freedom she would become what she had never been, a single united nation of Hindu and Moslem alike. This did not turn out to be the case, however. In fact, as advances towards self-government were gradually made, rifts developed between the Hindu and Moslem groups in the Congress. Some Indians accused Britain of stirring up these 'communal' troubles (as the ill-feeling between Hindu and Moslem communities was called) in order to weaken her opponents. Yet it seems more likely that both sides had only temporarily sunk their differences in the face of outside British control, and as British control decreased, they began to think more and more about their differences.

Certainly it is true that the Moslems became increasingly worried over the fact that they were greatly outnumbered in India. They were also, quite naturally, outnumbered in the Congress, and began to fear that the Hindu majority there might try to force Hindu policies on all India. Accordingly in 1909 they formed their own Moslem League. All the Moslems did not withdraw from the Congress, but in general the League became the centre of Moslem



JINNAH

nationalist feeling. For some time it worked closely with the Congress in the struggle for self-government. Gandhi, for instance, had wide Moslem support as well as Hindu, and though he was a Hindu he would not recognize any division between his followers.

Steadily, however, the arguments and jealousies between League and Congress mounted, and this was the chief reason why Indian leaders could not agree to accept Britain's offer of self-government in 1935. The Moslem League found a powerful and fiery leader in Mohammad Ali Jinnah, while in Congress Pandit Nehru came to the front. Jinnah was particularly sensitive about protecting Moslem rights, and he suspected that in Nehru's plans 'union' might just be another word for Hindu rule.

Thus, as the question of Indian self-government loomed larger and larger, it became ever more plain that the main problem lay not between Britain and India but between Hindu and Moslem. Finally the Moslem League came out for 'Pakistan'; that is, a 'pure country'—a purely Moslem one, carved out of the old united Indian Empire. Britain had hoped to see a federal union in India, but realizing that this was now impossible, she accepted the idea of separate Hindu and Moslem nations. Nehru and the Congress also came to accept the creation of Pakistan. And so the division of India was carried out, with Pakistan being formed from the largely Moslem northwest, plus a Moslem section in the east (East Pakistan—a large slice of Bengal) with which it has no direct contact by land. The Dominion of India, of course, kept all the rest—much the larger and richer part of the sub-continent. The princely states within their borders were taken over by the two new Indian nations.

In the summer of 1947 terrible disorders broke out when Pakistan and the Dominion of India came into being. Religious hatreds flared up with rioting and bloodshed. Millions of people left their homes in one of the greatest mass migrations in history, as Hindus in Pakistan, or Moslems in Hindu territory sought to flee for their

lives across the borders. Through all this turmoil Gandhi moved despairingly, trying to save the united Indian nation he had worked for. Yet his tragic death in 1948—murdered by a Hindu fanatic for being too ‘pro-Moslem’—at least had a sobering effect, and for a time brought Moslem and Hindu together in memory of a man they both revered as a saint and liberator.



NEHRU

Gradually India and Pakistan put their house in order. Jinnah had died, but under other leaders Pakistan began to move forward. Nehru, prime minister now of the Republic of India, by wonders of energy, did much to breathe unity and confidence into his nation. He also managed to do away with the caste of untouchability, a striking step forward, and a sign that the caste system was weakening and democracy truly growing in India. Then in 1952 India carried off its first general election with amazing smoothness. It was the largest democratic election the world has ever seen, when one hundred and seventy-six million people voted and returned Nehru and his Congress party to power.

Hence, by 1952, Pakistan and the Republic of India, after all their thousands of years of history, were at last well launched as young nations. They still had many problems, of which their religious difference was probably the most serious. This was shown, for example, by the bitter conflict over Kashmir, a big princely state lying between them which both wanted. With a population chiefly Moslem, and a Hindu prince ready to join India, Kashmir was almost a natural powder magazine of trouble. Even more serious, in the long run, is the problem of raising the standard of living of millions of poor in both countries who live always on the bare edge of starvation. Signs are not lacking, however, that both countries are determined to face such problems, and the freedom which they have gained will help them to do so. They are now their own masters, and this is the main thing. But at the same time they can look for advice and help from other friendly countries, like Canada. It was for this very purpose, as

we shall see later, that the Colombo Plan was drawn up at a Commonwealth Conference in 1950. India and Pakistan are thus vigorous, advancing members of the Commonwealth, facing great difficulties but meeting them firmly. This is the way we shall find them, as we turn to look at their life in the modern world.

3. India and Pakistan Today

(a) **The Indian Setting.** India is truly a sub-continent—a huge triangle jutting southward from the continent of Asia. Almost cut off from the rest of Asia by high mountain walls to the north, it has a character all its own. The Indian land-mass is about one-half the size of Canada. We should remember that this still makes it very large, since most of India is habitable, while a great part of Canada lies in the far north. That fact also does something to explain why the Indian sub-continent, terribly overcrowded as it is, can support a population so many times greater than Canada, which has twice its area.

Though there are some barren wastes in India, they are largely hot dry desert, not frozen northland, for India lies in the tropical or sub-tropical regions of the globe. Its southern tip reaches within eight degrees of the equator, and the Tropic of Cancer runs across the middle of the country, just above Calcutta. Because, more-

over, it is a big continental land-mass, the climate of much of the Indian land, even in its northern parts, is not moderated by the oceans. Hence in the Punjab, in the inland northwest, temperatures may reach well over 120° . Here indeed, it is said to be hot enough to 'turn a white man black and roast an egg'. Whether this be



true or not, one of the most notable features of the Indian scene is the great heat experienced almost everywhere. For most of the sub-continent there is no real winter; only a hot dry season followed by a hot wet season.

Of course, on the slopes of the northern mountains, altitude moderates the heat, and there are some beautiful temperate valleys (for instance, the far-famed Vale of Kashmir) and even snow-bound heights and peaks. Here indeed lie the world's highest mountain ranges, the mighty backbone of Asia—the Hindu Kush and the soaring Himalayas, called 'the Roof of the World'. Out of the Himalayas, not far from India's borders, towers Mount Everest, the loftiest peak of all, whose deep snows and howling gales were only conquered in 1953, when a British-New Zealand party finally reached its 29,000 foot summit. Hence India can supply extreme contrasts of blizzards and blazing sun, although we should stress again that heat is the rule almost everywhere except in the highest northern ranges.

Another feature of India's climate is the clear-cut pattern of rainfall caused by the prevailing monsoon winds. In the summer these winds blow up from the Indian Ocean, bringing a large amount of moisture with them. This is called the southwest or summer monsoon. In the winter they blow down from the northern mountains and pick up moisture as they cross the Bay of Bengal to drop on southern India. This is the northeast or winter monsoon. The coming of these regular rain-bearing winds is all-important to the Indian farmer. If they should be even briefly delayed, crops will shrivel and die in the steady heat. Seeds will not sprout, harvests may wither. And this can spell hunger, famine and death for thousands or even millions.

The rainfall pattern that shapes the life of India and Pakistan is also affected by the main Indian surface features. There are three chief regions: the lofty northern mountains, the fertile low-lying Indus-Ganges plain of central India, and the higher rolling Deccan plateau of the south. The broad triangular Deccan is rimmed by hills or low mountains running down on either side

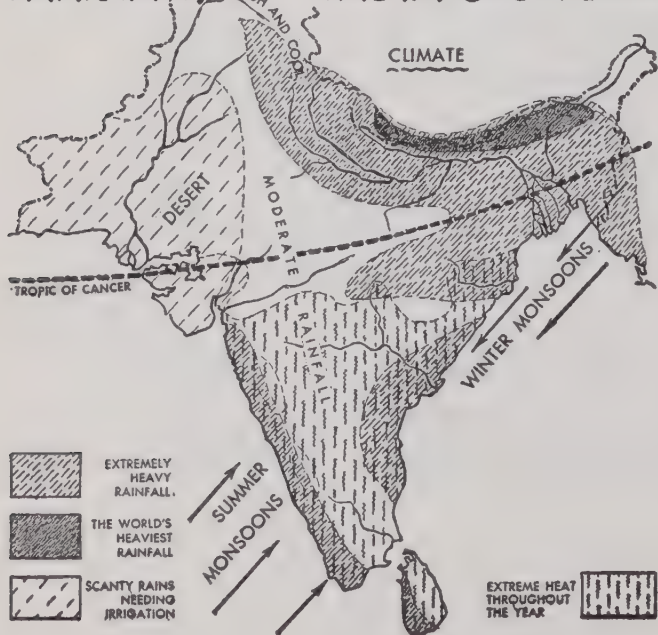
to the tip of India. They are known as the Eastern and Western Ghats, and beyond the Ghats there are only narrow strips of coastal plains along the shores of the Indian Ocean.

The southwest summer monsoon drops much of its rain in crossing the Western Ghats, giving the western edge of India an extremely high rainfall, but leaving less for the Deccan beyond. Some of this monsoon also reaches the steep slopes of the Himalayas in northeastern India, and pours down here the heaviest rains in the world. The eastern half of the great central Indian plain also gets well watered in the bargain, but towards the west there is very little rain because the monsoon has lost most of its moisture by the time it reaches there. And so it is in the northwest, in Pakistan, that dry and even desert conditions occur.

So much for the work of the summer monsoon. As for the winter monsoon, since it blows from the heart of the continent it is generally dry, except where in crossing the Bay of Bengal it picks up moisture to drop on the Eastern Ghats and Ceylon. From all this, we can form a general picture of the Indian setting. In the south we have the lush jungle and forested hills of the Western and Eastern Ghats, with the drier plateau of the Deccan in between. In the centre are the great croplands of the Indus-Ganges plain, where most of India's teeming millions live. In the northwest, in Baluchistan and the Punjab, we find the dry

or desert regions, and in the northeast, in upper Bengal and Assam, the humid foothills of the Himalayas. And northward, beyond all these, lie the bare and ice-capped mountain ranges, whose melting snows feed India's greatest rivers as they course down over the plains: the one thousand, nine-hundred mile long Indus, that flows out to the western coast, and the Ganges

PAKISTAN, INDIA & CEYLON

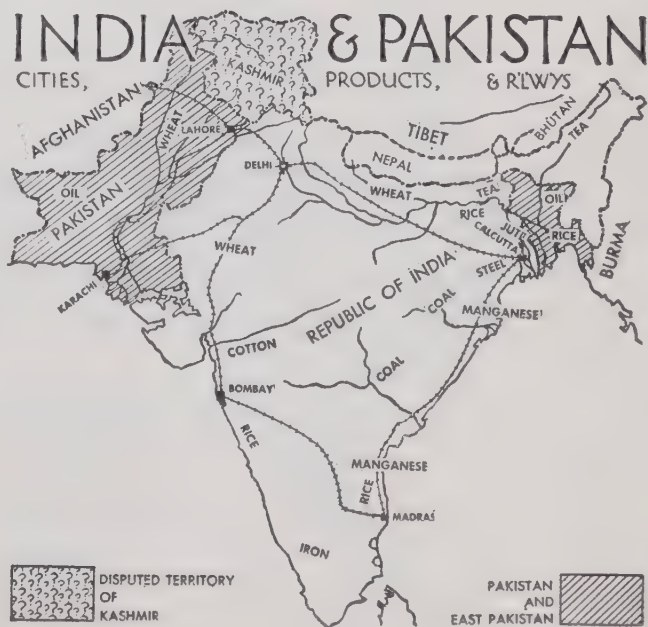


and Bramaputra, almost as long, that flow out eastward to the Bay of Bengal.

(b) **Resources and Products.** These features of climate and rainfall matter a great deal in India and Pakistan since about eighty per cent of their people live by farming. The fact is that the Indian sub-continent is not particularly well supplied with natural resources other than its fertile soil, and so the numbers of people living by mining and industry are comparatively small. This does not mean that there are no important mineral resources. There are many good coal deposits scattered across the Republic of India, and Pakistan, both in its main western part and in East Pakistan, has sizeable and growing oil fields. The Republic of India is also the second biggest world producer of manganese, a metal needed for the hardening of steel, while the Tata Iron Works, near Calcutta, is the largest iron and steel plant in the Commonwealth. But India's big iron and coal production, second only to Britain in the Commonwealth, does not seem so large when the needs of her huge population are considered. Similarly, even though Indian industry—including chemicals, ships, cars and textiles—has grown greatly in recent years, it still has far to go before it can change the basic dependence of the Indian peoples on farming.

Indian farming yields a great variety of products—for example, pepper, tropical fruits, cotton and rice in the south, sugar cane, wheat and jute on the central plains, and tea, oranges, apples and mixed grains on the northern foot-hills. Yet again these products are so much needed by India's own millions that only certain crops are important for the outside markets of the world. Of these, the chief ones are jute, cotton, tea, and possibly wheat and rice.

Jute is used for sacking, rope, and the base of linoleum. The



Indian sub-continent produces most of the world's supply, chiefly in East Pakistan. Cotton is widely grown in India, especially in the Deccan. Much of it is sent to the busy textile mills of Bombay on the west coast, India's second city. Raw cotton is also exported through Madras, India's third city, near the southern tip of the sub-continent.

Tea is chiefly grown in the foothills of the Himalayas, north of Calcutta, the largest of all the cities of India. Here on high plantations reached by winding railways that climb very steep inclines, much of the western world's favourite tea is grown. It is marketed as 'black tea', not green or 'China' tea. The hot sun, cool nights and plentiful rain make tea grow faster here than anywhere else in the world except Ceylon: the leaves may be picked every seven to ten days.

Wheat and rice are the two basic foodstuffs of the Indian peoples. The former supplies the chief food in the north and centre, the latter in the south; but rice is grown as a second crop even in the Punjab, while both wheat and rice grow well in the fertile valley of the Ganges. In the past, India has exported some of both crops, but her rapidly mounting population has in recent years forced her almost regularly to import large extra amounts of these grains to feed her many people. During 1943, when the Bengal rice crop failed and the Japanese enemy prevented imports from South East Asia, there was a particularly terrible famine. A million and a half people starved to death.

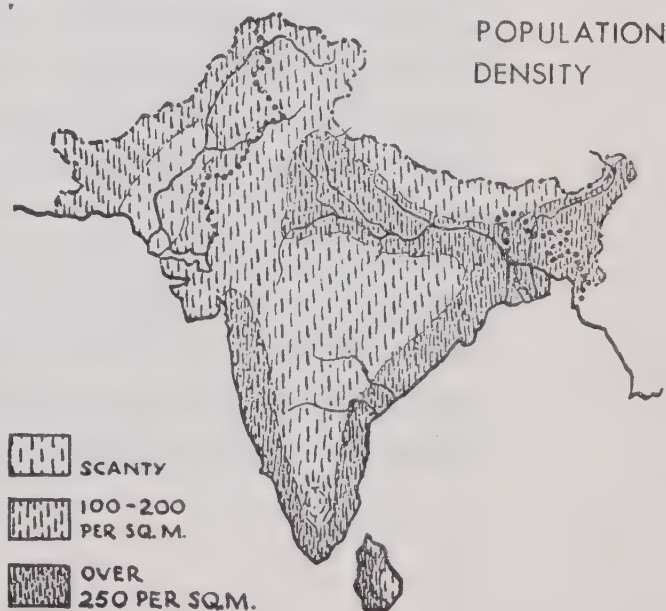
Indeed, the problem of feeding its vast population is an ever-pressing one in the Indian sub-continent. It faces many other problems, but most of them relate to the same thing: the fact that Indian farming has so many mouths to feed that the bulk of the people of India and Pakistan can scratch only the barest living from the soil, and hence live amidst poverty, ill-health and ignorance. Nevertheless, these same people have a dignity, cheerfulness and warm friendliness that many better-off nations might well envy.

(c) **The Life of the People of India and Pakistan.** The problem

of feeding the Indian multitudes is made more difficult by several things. First there is the unwillingness of many a Hindu farmer to get rid of the pests that attack his crops. His religion teaches him that God is in everything, and thus it is sinful to kill any living being. Since, moreover, cows are sacred animals to the Hindu, he lets them wander freely in his crops, his villages, or his towns—a vast, useless, permanent army of plunderers, helping themselves anywhere, and eating up food that should go to people. Then farming methods in India are generally primitive, among Hindus and Moslems alike. A farmer's fields may be scattered all about the lands of his village. He wastes time moving from one to the other, and uses a small wooden plough light enough to carry on his back, but which barely scratches the soil.

Then, too, the farmer's fields are too small for modern farming practices, and by dividing them among his sons he makes them even smaller. Also many farmers are heavily burdened with debt to wealthy money lenders. They cannot afford to buy more land or machinery to increase their production. All of this means a generally low yield from Indian farming, and the chance of the rains failing adds still another grave problem.

Yet something can be done about these problems in order to increase India's food production—even about the rain, for in the drier areas less certain of rainfall, irrigation and water storage tanks can work wonders. Much had already been done in this direction under the British government, which built great irrigation systems, especially on the Indus, for the dry western lands. The new governments of India and Pakistan have kept on with these efforts to expand and improve their farmlands. Now irrigation waters one-sixth of the farmland of the sub-continent, the biggest development of irrigation in the world.



More than this, machinery is being introduced on Indian farms, especially on new lands won by irrigation from the desert, where the farm units can be kept large—as they need to be with modern machine methods of cultivation. Also, Indian villagers are coming together in co-operatives to buy farm machinery and fertilizers and to sell crops. This is one of the most hopeful new signs in Indian agriculture. There is a great deal still to be done, and population is still increasing faster than farm production. But at least we may hope that India and Pakistan are at last moving to solve this problem.

At the same time disease and ignorance are being tackled, al-



"THAT MONSOON'S TWENTY MINUTES LATE AGAIN!"

though the problems here are tremendous. Less than twenty per cent of the Indian peoples can read and write. A Canadian can expect to live for sixty-seven years, an Indian for twenty-seven. To improve these conditions, the governments of India and Pakistan are building schools and hospitals, spreading inoculation against disease, and training nurses and doctors. In these efforts they are being assisted by the United Nations, the United States, and notably by the Commonwealth. Commonwealth countries, including Canada, met at Colombo, Ceylon, in 1950 and drew up a long-range, five billion dollar plan to improve conditions in India, Pakistan, and South East Asia in order to prevent the discontent which thrives on misery and ignorance. India and Pakistan are to receive a large part of this Commonwealth assistance

to raise their standards of farming, health, and education. Here the Commonwealth's Colombo Plan is another gleaming hope for the Indian peoples in the long uphill battle ahead of them.

Industry also is being developed in both countries as a means of raising living standards and of giving employment in other ways than on the crowded farmlands. Pakistan is making special efforts in this direction. When Pakistan came into being it found that most of its raw materials had gone to factories which now lay in India. Hence Pakistan began a strong drive to build its own industry, especially around Karachi, its capital and chief city. At the same time its neighbour, India, also increased its factory output, raising it by more than a fifth in the first four years of its existence.

Meanwhile most of the people of the sub-continent have continued to live much as they always have, in the little stone, mud, or bamboo villages which contain nearly nine-tenths of the population. Besides farmers, the villages have blacksmiths, carpenters, craftsmen, and so on, because each village, as of old, is almost a self-contained little world. Some of the finest products of Indian art and craftsmanship—beautiful shawls and rugs, delicately carved ebony and ivory, finely inlaid silver and brass—come from the humble workshops of these villages.

But besides the quiet village life, there is also the noisy bustling activity of the great Indian towns and cities. Here you would find that the modern age has truly left its mark. The big factories of Calcutta, which has two million inhabitants, or of Bombay, which has one and a half million, are quite as modern as anything you would see in Canada. The splendid city public buildings, the busy main streets, fine stores and glittering movie palaces (India has a film industry second in size only to Hollywood), might look more like the western world than like village India not many miles away. The buses, street cars, trains and airports would all suggest our modern age.

In short, it would be unwise to think of India or Pakistan as unchanging and unprogressive, just because so much of their life

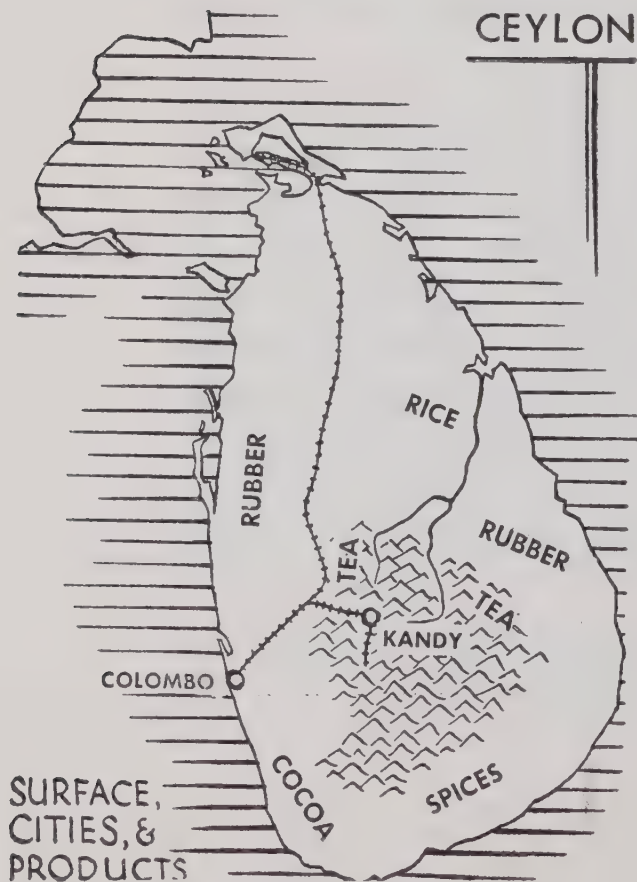
is very different from ours. In 1947 India had more pupils in its schools than the entire population of Canada. It has the biggest universities in the Commonwealth in Calcutta and Bombay, and some of the finest hospitals too. Comparing the life of the peoples of India and Pakistan with our own should only make us understand and respect their differences and cause us to realize the extent of their problems, which they are meeting with such high courage and confidence.

4. The Dominion of Ceylon

Just twenty-two miles off the southern tip of India lies this famous island, which was settled about 2,500 years ago by people who crossed from the Indian mainland. In a later time the great Indian king, Asoka, sent missionaries who converted its people to Buddhism, then the dominant faith in India. When Buddhism died out in India, it continued on in Ceylon, though Hindus, Moslems and Christians are also found

there today. This fact of Buddhism lasting in Ceylon is just one sign that, although close to India, and often influenced from there, the island has had a history of its own.

It long was a meeting place for Arab traders from the West and Chinese from the East. When Europe began expanding across the oceans, Portuguese traders took control, just as they did at first in the trade with India. For many years they bartered in Ceylon, for spices, pearls and rubies, until the Dutch drove them out. And then in 1796,



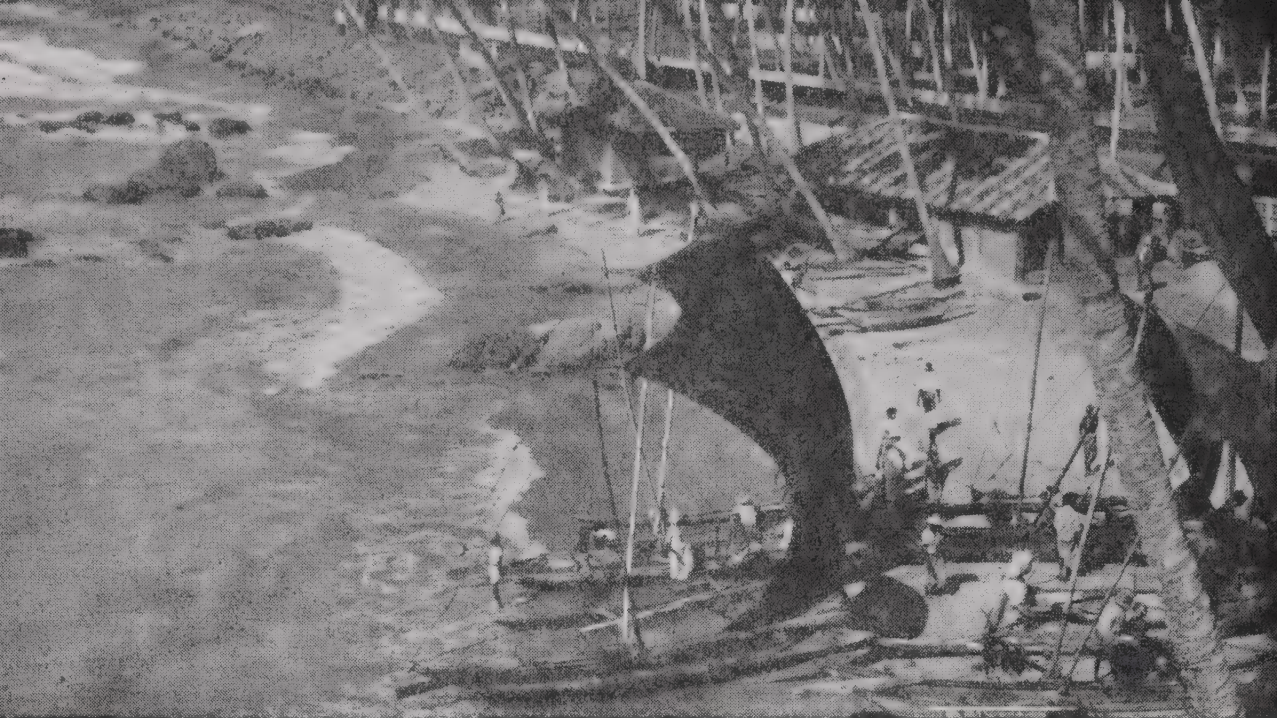
at the same time as the Dutch Cape of Good Hope was taken, the powerful British navy seized Ceylon and drove out the Dutch in their turn.

After 1802, Ceylon was made a separate British colony. British rule was extended to the interior of the island following the defeat of the fierce King of Kandy. Self-government gradually came to Ceylon in the twentieth century, as it did to India, but with far less trouble, and without violence between the religious groups. In 1948 the island became a self-governing Dominion under the wise prime ministership of D. S. Senanayake, and thus became the youngest member of the Commonwealth family.

Ceylon, a large island, about the size of New Brunswick, has been known for its beauty and riches as 'the Pearl of the East'. It consists of a broad coastal plain surrounding a central mass of mountains. One side of Ceylon receives the full summer monsoon rains and the other the winter, and because of this heavy rainfall, tropical plants grow abundantly. The surrounding ocean moderates the heat somewhat, even though Ceylon lies so far south, and the high central uplands have a pleasant and refreshing climate. Moreover the rapid fall of rivers from this mountain mass allows hydro-electric power to be developed. This is important, because Ceylon has no coal.

The island produces rice, cocoa, spices, cocoanuts, and especially tea and rubber. Rubber is grown in the hot, humid coastlands and tea in the cooler interior. Here, it is said, the clear mountain air gives the tea the finest flavour in the world. Kandy, the old capital, is the centre of the tea districts, and is a wonderful place to visit because of its Buddhist temples and splendid Buddhist religious celebrations. A fine road and railway line link it with Colombo, the biggest city and chief seaport, where ships meet from every part of the globe.

Ceylon has about seven million people, most of them farmers, but there are also well developed business and manufacturing groups among them. Her industry has good prospects, thanks to cheap power and valuable iron deposits on the island. Her level of



NATIVES BEACH THEIR BOATS ON THE SHORES OF CEYLON

education is higher than India's, and she has not faced the same kind of religious difficulties. Thanks to these things, the future of the Dominion of Ceylon looks bright.

5. The Asian Commonwealth Countries in the World Today

The entrance of these three new Asian nations, India, Pakistan and Ceylon into the Commonwealth is an event of tremendous importance. For one thing it has greatly affected the make-up of the Commonwealth which before 1947 was largely a partnership of European peoples, with the biggest group of them in Great Britain. Now in numbers at least, the Commonwealth is overwhelmingly Asiatic in membership, and contains far more Hindus and Moslems than Christians. Numbers, of course, are not everything. In point of world power, development, and resources, the older partners of the Commonwealth are still more important than these newer members. Nevertheless, they are developing rapidly, and since their populations are so great the Commonwealth cannot help but be affected in its world relations by this 'shift to the east' in its circle of membership.

After all, the Commonwealth now contains the world's largest Moslem power, Pakistan. Since the Moslem countries, Egypt, Arabia, Iran, and so on, are very important in present-day world affairs, Pakistan will probably carry considerable weight in the Commonwealth as voicing the Moslem point of view. Then too, the Commonwealth has in the Republic of India, the greatest non-Communist nation in Asia. And this is particularly important.

At a time when the forces of Communism are making every effort to control more and more of the peoples of Asia, it is very valuable to the Commonwealth, to Canada, and to the whole western democratic world, to have a link with India, the greatest free nation in Asia, and second in size only to Communist China.

The Communists try to tell these Asian peoples that they have nothing to gain from the West; that the West only brought them rule from above, forced them down as colonies, and put greedy, grasping outside governments over them. It is a wonderful thing to have this lie disproved by the existence of India as a huge Asian nation granted freedom by the West and trained in the ways of western democracy. Indeed, India can be our bridge to the rising peoples of Asia, to show them that democracy and freedom can work, whereas Communism brings only slavery. Thanks to the presence of India and Pakistan in the Commonwealth, therefore, the Western world has valuable links with Asia.

These countries recognize that fact, and act accordingly. India, in particular, tries to keep a mid-way position in world politics between the Asian Communist countries and the Western democracies, because she wants to show that she belongs both to Asia and to the democratic world. This is a hard role to play, but with her great internal problems she hopes to keep from adding external troubles as well.

The flexible Commonwealth bond again permits this to happen, and lets India steer her own course. Is this a sign of weakness? Not at all, because it shows that the Commonwealth can still keep on growing in Asia, and proving to its peoples that there is another path to nationhood than through the violence of Com-

munist revolution and dictatorship. Thus British Malaya in South East Asia is today being prepared for self-government as an answer to the Communist trouble-makers in its midst. Some day it may become the fourth Commonwealth country in Asia. The British Commonwealth of Nations still continues to act as a great laboratory of freedom. And nowhere is the Commonwealth's high work of building freedom around the world more important or more vitally necessary than on the vast continent of Asia.

Learn by Doing

1. Discuss the things that make for happiness in life. (1)
2. Form a panel of pupils to discuss the caste system in India. (1)
3. Form two committees. One reports on aspects of the Hindu religion, and the other on those of the Moslem religion. (1)
4. Prepare an imaginary radio interview with Mahatma Gandhi. Outline ways in which British rule helped India towards nationhood, and also show why India wanted independence. (1, d)
5. Write a diary which Gandhi might have kept, listing the main steps which India made towards independence. (1, d)
6. Form a committee to discuss the weaknesses of the farming methods in India, and ways in which farming might be improved. (2, c)
7. Write a newspaper article describing the improvements in health conditions which are needed in India. (2, c)
8. Each pupil in the class write one interesting fact about India, and also one problem which needs to be solved. All the interesting facts should then be read, followed by all the problems.
9. (a) Model the surface features of Ceylon from asbestos fibre.
(b) Prepare a map showing the effect of winds, water, and zones on the climate of Ceylon. (3)

Facts to Know

1. Write a paragraph contrasting Canada and India.
2. How did India become part of the British Empire? (1, b)
3. (a) Name some of the contributions Britain made to life in India. (1, c)
(b) Why did India want to end British rule? (1, c)
4. Why did the Indian Mutiny take place? (1, c)
5. (a) Why did India divide into two separate countries? (2)
(b) Why did this separation lead to disorders? (2)
6. Describe the way in which winds and the height of the land affect life in India. (2, a)
7. How would opening of more industries affect life in India? (2, c)
8. Why has Ceylon developed more rapidly than India? (3)
9. Why is India's position in Asia so important to the West? (4)

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APPENDIX

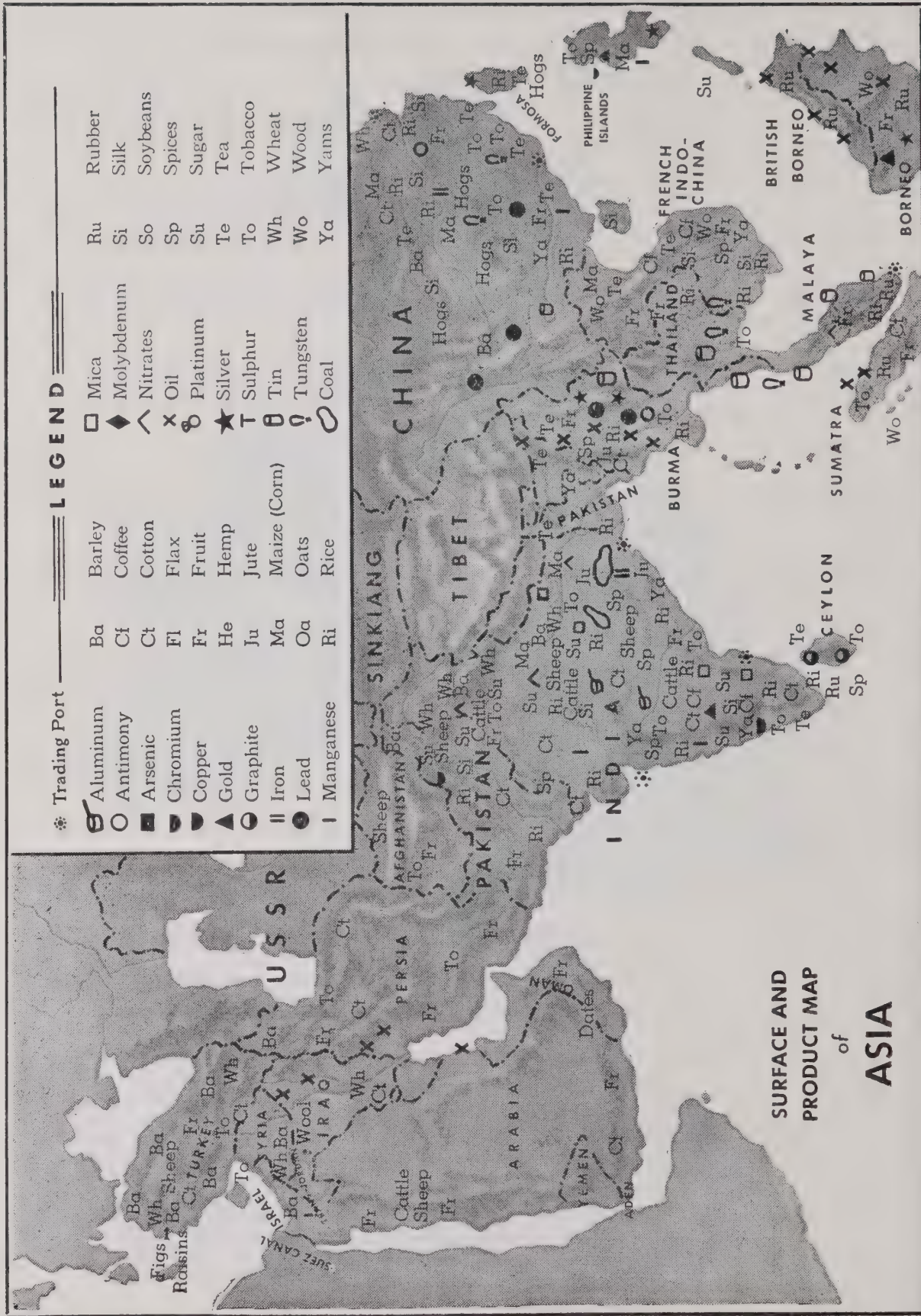
Time Chart for Britain and the Commonwealth

43	Roman Legions conquer southern England to establish Roman peace and civilization
410 on	Coming of Angles, Saxons and Jutes to England
597	Augustine brings Christianity to England
870-900	Alfred the Great checks Danish attacks
1066	Norman conquest of England, after which the feudal system is fully established
1154-89	Henry II lays the foundation of England's courts and common law
1215	John, in signing Magna Carta, agrees that the king is subject to the laws of the land
1295	Model Parliament of Edward I, became pattern for later English parliaments
1337-1453	Hundred Years' War during which England tries to establish an empire in France, and parliament increases in power
1477	William Caxton starts printing in England
1485	Wars of the Roses between parties of nobles end with Henry Tudor becoming King
1497	Cabot's discovery of Newfoundland fisheries arouses interest in overseas exploration
1534	Henry VIII uses parliament to carry through the Reformation in England
1580	Drake completes voyage around the world, in the great days of the Elizabethan 'sea-dogs'
1588	Defeat of Spanish Armada opens seas and New World to England's sailors and traders

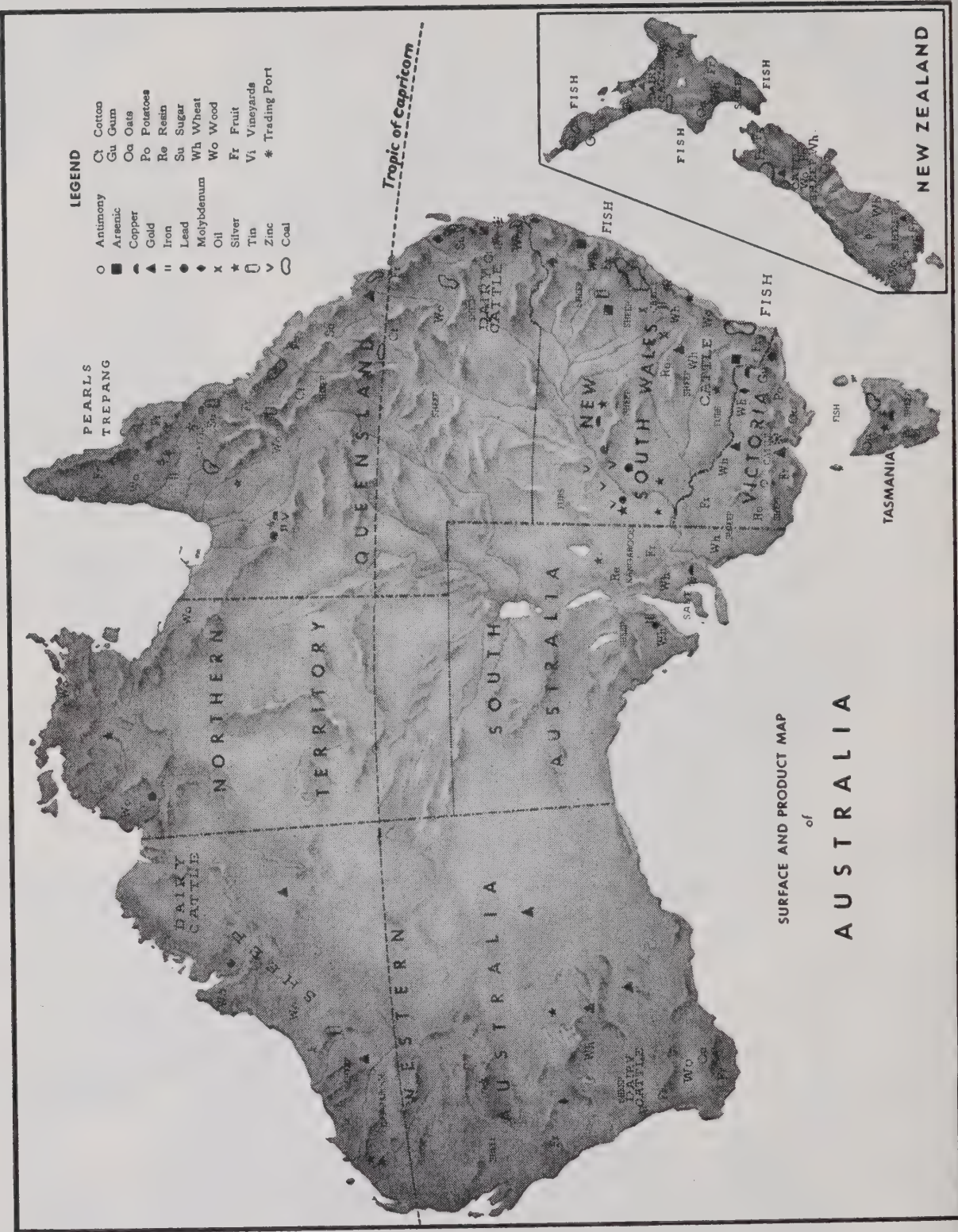


LEGEND							
	Cattle Pastures	Ba	Barley		Steam-Electric (MAIN CENTRES)	Lin	Linen
	Chemicals	Chi	China		Steam-Electric (LESSER CENTRES)	Nyl	Nylon
	China Clay	Cot	Cotton		Iron	Oa	Oats
	Coal	Gl	Glass		Motors	Ray	Rayon
★	Engineering	Ju	Jute		Sheep Grazing	Si	Silk
	Hydro-Electric (MAIN CENTRES)	La	Lace		Shipbuilding	Tw	Tweeds
	Hydro-Electric (LESSER CENTRES)	Lea	Leather		Slate	Wh	Wheat
					Oil Shale	Woo	Woollen

1590's	Shakespeare writes many of his plays
1600	East India Company founded—becomes a model for other trading companies
1607	Jamestown, Virginia, founded—beginning of English settlement in the New World
1611	King James' version of the Bible completed
1628	Charles I accepts Petition of Right guaranteeing important liberties to the people
1642-49	Civil War in England to decide who should rule, king or parliament
1660	Restoration of king in England, on fall of Puritan republic
1670's	Political parties begin to emerge in parliament
1688	The 'Glorious Revolution' limits the powers of the king and aids growth of liberties for the individual
1707	Scotland and England join to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain
1721-42	Growth of cabinet system under Walpole
1733	Kay invents the flying shuttle, a sign of the change to the use of machines in industry
1756-63	Seven Years' War between England and France for overseas empire and trade, ending in British victory in Canada and India
1763-75	British plans to re-organize empire in America result in revolt of the thirteen colonies
1768	Cook claims New Zealand and Australia for Britain
1775-83	War of the American Revolution and loss of the thirteen colonies—Loyalists come to Canada
1782	Watt's improved steam engine provides power for the growing Industrial Revolution
1793-1815	Britain fights French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars
1815 on	On defeat of France, British control of the seas leads to great trade and extensive new empire-building







- 1832 The First Reform Bill, first of a series of laws to make parliament democratic—which also leads to laws to improve working conditions (Factory Acts)
- 1839 Lord Durham's Report on the British American colonies
- 1848 Britain starts to grant responsible government to her colonies
- 1855 Colony of South Australia gives votes to every man
- 1857 Indian Mutiny causes British parliament to end East India Company rule and take direct control of India
- 1867 Provinces in British America unite to form Dominion of Canada
- 1887 First of conferences between Britain and colonies to discuss empire problems
- 1899-1901 War in South Africa, after which defeated Afrikaners granted responsible government (1907)
- 1900 Australian colonies unite as the Commonwealth of Australia
- 1909 Union of South Africa formed
- 1914-1918 Britain and empire fight against Germany in the First World War
- 1919 Dominions accepted as nations at the Paris Peace Conference
- 1926 Balfour Report declares Dominion free and equal nations in the Commonwealth
- 1931 Statute of Westminster recognizes the British Commonwealth of Nations
- 1930's Rise of dictators with plans for conquest
- 1939-45 The Second World War against Germany, Italy and Japan
- 1947 India granted nationhood and divides into Pakistan and Republic of India
- 1948 National Insurance Act rounds out a broad system of social services for Britain
- 1953 Coronation of Elizabeth II



ELIZABETH THE SECOND,

*by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom,
Canada, and her other Realms and Territories,*

Queen, Head of the Commonwealth,

Defender of the Faith.

At the Commonwealth Conference of Prime Ministers in London, December, 1952, the question of rewording the 'Royal Style and Titles' was discussed, in order to bring the wording into line with the nature of the Commonwealth under the new monarch. The phrase 'Head of the Commonwealth' was agreed on for all. The above wording was suggested for Canada or for other Commonwealth countries which wished to adopt it. Each would fill in its own name after 'United Kingdom', or drop phrases which it did not wish to keep. Each country through its parliament would approve the wording for itself. This historic event is an interesting illustration of the working of the Commonwealth and of the spirit of freedom and co-operation which makes it possible.

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